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VIGNETTE Title Page.
Plan of the City of St. Petersburg.
Shops in the great Perspective.
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EXTRACTS.

SUPPLY OF BREAD.

" ALL great and populous towns procure the necessaries of life from a greater or less distance; and the richest and most fertile province is not competent to supply products in such quantities and variety as to satisfy the demands of the population and the luxury of those enormous piles of buildings: the ordinary articles of consumption, however, they usually draw from the parts adjacent. The district in

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which St. Petersburg stands is so greatly behind in agriculture and gardening, as to be obliged to fetch its supply of provisions entirely from a distance. Not only the objects of extravagance, but even the simplest necessaries of life, for upwards of two hundred thousand persons, are produced in foreign, and in part very distant climes. Were it not for the large and invaluable communications by water, it would be impossible to provide for the subsistence of St. Petersburg; at present it is a source of industry to a numerous class of people who make it their peculiar business; and the exchange of the products for money and wrought commodities, is the means of distributing the collective wealth of the residence, by thousands of petty channels, into the remotest provinces.

Bread, that prime and most general necessary, is brought to St. Petersburg from the countries bordering on the Volga. Both rye and wheaten bread are eaten here: the latter is the common food of even the lowest and poorest classes. The goodness of it naturally in part depends on the manner of its preparation, and accordingly varies very much. On the whole, the baking here is good, and often excellent, it being impossible any where, even in Paris, to eat better bread than here. At the tables of the great, and in what are called good houses, only wheat bread is eaten; and what a considerable article this at times may be, is apparent from the housekeeping of Count Razumofsky; where, in far cheaper times, the consumption of the several kinds of bread alone, came annually

nually to upwards of a thousand rubles. The rye bread is well tafted, and yields more nourishment. It is universally eaten, and even in families of good condition, where they have the means of choosing between this and the other. The poorer sort use what is called black bread, prepared of rye meal unbolted, and is uncommonly nutritious. The common Russian, with this black bread, likewise frequently eats rolls made of coarse wheat flour, called kafatsches, and are sold cheap about the streets.

"The consumption of this necessary may be tolerably well ascertained by the number and burden of the barks that bring the flour. Of meal, barley, &c. upwards of four millions eight hundred thousand poods* are annually brought hither. The price of the bolted wheat flour is now at two rubles † twenty kopecks the pood. A pound of rye bread costs now at the baker's four kopecks; a pound of black bread one kopeck and a half.

"As the price of flour, by various accidental circumstances, and the greater or less quantity imported, was liable to frequent fluctuations, and sometimes was kept very high for a long time together, the Empress Catharine took the matter into consideration; and, in order to free the inferior orders of the community from the extortions of the corn-chandlers, in the year 1780 erected a capacious flour magazine, from which any one may provide himself with this indispensable article of life, at a moderate price, but only in small quantities." P. 112.

FRAUDS OF SHOPKEEPERS—STORIES OF CHEATS.

"GREAT as the security of the city is in regard to acts of open violence, yet it is necessary for every one to be upon his guard against artful impostors and deep-laid stratagems. The frequent instances of this kind make every Russian wary, and therefore they are not so easily made the dupes of their countrymen; but so much the more do they make up for this at the expense of strangers and foreigners, particularly when they are not acquainted with the language of the country. The shop-

keepers and merchants commonly ask three times, and frequently even five times as much as the commodity is worth; the unknowing offer the half, and think they have made a good bargain, till they find, when too late, that they have been miserably cheated. To give damaged goods a fair appearance, to defraud in measure and weight in an imperceptible manner, to slip bad goods among the better that have been bought and ordered home; all these, and a multitude of other tricks, no dealers in the world understand better than the Russian. As the Russians in general are surprisingly cunning and of quick parts, they are eminently addicted to this species of industry; and the pickpockets of St. Petersburg and Mosco may safely lay wagers on their dexterity with those of London and Paris.

"Some time since the following affair happened at Mosco, which excited great curiosity both there and at the residence; and, on account of its originality, deserves to be noticed while we are on this subject. A wealthy nobleman, well known as a fancier of precious stones, fell accidentally in company with a person unknown to him, who wore on his finger a ring of great beauty and value. After a long discourse on its real worth, the nobleman offered him a considerable price for it; which the stranger at first refused, on the reasonable ground that he had no desire to part with it. At length, however, to evade the repeated importunities of the nobleman, he declared that he could not sell it, because—the stones were not genuine. This declaration filled all the company, among whom were connoisseurs, with amazement. The nobleman, in order to be sure of the matter, desired to have the ring for a few days against sufficient security, received it, and ran from one jeweller to another, who all unanimously pronounced the stones to be genuine, and of great value. With this assurance, and the hope of a good bargain, he brought back the ring to its owner, who, on receiving it, put it, with great indifference, into his waistcoat pocket. The negotiation now began afresh: the stranger persisted in his resolution, till at length the

* A pood is thirty-six English pounds.

† A ruble consists of a hundred kopecks.

nobleman

nobleman offered a sum which was pretty near the true value of it. ‘This ring,’ returned the stranger, ‘is a token of friendship; but I am not rich enough to reject so large a sum as you offer for it. Yet this high offer is the very reason of my not complying. How can you, if you are thoroughly conscious of what you are doing, offer so much money for a ring, which the owner himself confesses to be made up of false stones?’

‘If your determination depends only on that,’ replied the buyer, ‘here take at once the sum,’ (laying it in bank notes upon the table,) ‘and I call the gentlemen here present to witness, that I voluntarily, and after due consideration, pay it.’ The seller took the money, and gave the nobleman the ring, repeating the declaration, that the stones were false, and that it was still time to make the bargain void. The latter obstinately refused to hearken to his advice, hastened joyfully home, and found—what the reader has already guessed—that the stranger had said what was too true. Instead of the genuine ring, he had a false one made exactly like the other. The affair was brought into a court of justice; but as the seller proved, that during the whole business there was no question at all about genuine stones; that the purchaser expressly treated only for a false ring, and he on the other hand told him only a false ring; the judge was accordingly obliged to pronounce in favour of the latter.

“The arts of cheating in the articles of provisions are no where better understood than here. Ordinary deceptions of this nature happen in every place; but when one looks at a fowl, which to all appearance is finely fattened, and finds it only filled with wind; or asparagus, deprived of their eatable part, pointed again and coloured with a tempting verdure; no man will call these ordinary tricks.

“A lady, who had not been long come out of Germany, and had heard much from her acquaintance at Petersburg of the many artifices of this nature practised in that city, took the resolution to use the utmost caution in all her dealings, in order to refute the common opinion, that every stranger must buy his wisdom. Several days

passed on: one morning, however, a rasnofschik* entered her apartment, and offered her a pound of tea, the last remains of what he had to sell. She weighed the parcel, and found it just: she made a trial; the tea was unadulterated, and well flavoured: she shook it all out into a basin; no deceit was discoverable. She inquired the price, and offered a third part of what he asked: the vendor was naturally not satisfied with this offer; turned his tea back again into the box, wrapped a cloth about it, and crammed it into his bosom. At length the bargain was struck, and the commodity delivered; however, prudence does no harm; the lady opened the box, and saw the tea she had bought. She shut it up, to the great joy of the seller, who in the meantime had asked her, smiling, why she was so extremely cautious, and why she had so very bad an opinion of his honesty. The money was paid; therafnoschik went his way; and some days after the box was found full of sand and grains, excepting the surface, which was really good tea.” P. 153.

OCCASIONAL INUNDATIONS—PRECAUTIONS AGAINST THEM.

“THIS city, from its situation at the mouth of a large navigable river, is very often exposed to inundations. On a continuance of westerly winds the water rises to the height of ten feet above its ordinary level. At five feet it overflows only the western parts of the town, in places where the Neva has no rampart; but on a swell of the water to ten feet, only the easternmost parts escape a general inundation. In the year 1777, on Sunday, the 20th of September, at ten o’clock in the forenoon, the water rose to the height of ten feet seven inches above its usual level; and though in two hours afterwards it had again retired within its banks, yet this short inundation produced very extraordinary effects. A ship from Lubeck was carried into the wood on Vassilli-otrof: the Dutchess of Kingston’s famous yacht, which she had quitted a few days before, was cast upon the bar, and greatly damaged; many wooden houses were washed away, and several persons had lost their lives during the obscurity of the night.

* “Rasnofschiks are vendors of small articles about the streets.”

" Since this remarkable inundation, proper measures of prudence and caution have been adopted. For several years the height of the water had been regularly marked at the castle. Now, at all risings of the river, signals were appointed at the admiralty, as a warning to the inhabitants. Whenever it rises above its banks at the mouth of the Great Neva, notice is given to the town by three distinct firings of cannon, which are repeated at intervals, as the danger increases. Within the town, in this case, five cannons are fired from the admiralty battery, and on the steeple of it by day four white flags are displayed, and by night four lanterns are hung out; and at the same time the church bells are slowly tolled. In places most exposed to the inundation, vessels are kept in readiness for saving the people. These regulations, the increasing buildings, the embanking, and the magnificent stone quay of the Neva, together with the extension of the water-surface by the various canals, render these western gales less alarming to the inhabitants of St. Petersburg; so that a swell of five feet above the level now excites but little or even no attention." *P. 158.*

HEARTHS IN THE STREETS.

" A PECULIARITY observable here are the street hearths; which, both on that account and from their humane design in providing a comfortable place of resort to the poor drivers and others of the lower class who are obliged to wait in the streets in the winter season, deserve a short description. One of these hearths consists of a circular spot surrounded by a parapet of granite, having a bench within of the same material, covered with an iron roof, supported on pillars of that metal; and in the middle is kindled a large fire, round which twenty or thirty persons may conveniently sit and enjoy the warmth. Iron shutters are likewise placed on the stone parapet reaching up to within a couple of feet from the roof, which, sliding in grooves, are easily moved so as to keep off the force of the chilling blasts. On all the principal squares, near the playhouses, and wherever a number of equipages are usually collected, and the coachmen and servants are obliged to wait several hours in the cold, these fire-hearths are

constructed. From being all made of granite with painted iron roofs and screens, they likewise add to the embellishment of the places where they stand." *P. 171.*

INGENIOUS WORKS OF ART—A CURIOUS PIECE OF MECHANISM.

" MOST of the trades that relate to luxuries are here carried on to such an extent, and in so great perfection, as to render it, at least for the residence, unnecessary to import those articles from abroad. The chief of these are works in the nobler metals. Here are forty-four Russian and one hundred and thirty-nine foreign, consequently in all one hundred and eighty-three workers in gold, silver, and trinkets, as masters; and besides them several gilders and silverers—a monstrous disproportion, when compared with those employed in the useful and indispensable businesses. The pomp of the court, and the luxury of the rich and great, have rendered a taste in works of this kind so common, and carried the art itself to such a pitch, that the most extraordinary objects of it are here to be met with. Several of them are wrought in a sort of manufactory: in one set of premises are all the various workmen and shops for completing the most elegant devices, ornamental and useful, from the rough bullion. Even the embroiderers in gold and silver, though they are not formed into a company, are yet pretty numerous. The works they produce are finished in so high a taste, that quantities of them are sold in the shops that deal in English or French goods, and to which they are not inferior. This business, which is a perpetual source of profit to a great number of widows and young women of slender incomes, forms a strong objection to the declamations against luxury. Perhaps the remark is not unnecessary, that sham laces and embroidery cannot here be used, even on the stage." *P. 284.*

" Joinery is practised as well by the Russians as the Germans; but the cabinet-maker's art, in which the price of the ingenuity far exceeds the value of the materials, is at present solely confined to some foreigners, amongst whom the Germans distinguish themselves to their honour. The artifices of that nation occasionally execute master-pieces,

pieces, made at the intervals of leisure under the influence of genius and taste, for which they find a ready sale in the residence of a great and magnificent court. Thus not long since one of these made a cabinet, which for invention, taste, and excellency of workmanship, exceeded every thing that had ever been seen in that way. The price of this piece of art was seven thousand rubles; and the artist declared, that with this sum he should not be paid for the years of application he had bestowed upon it. Another monument of German ingenuity is preserved in the Academy of Sciences, in the model of a bridge after a design of the state-counsellor Von Gerhard. This bridge, the most magnificent work of the kind, if the possibility of its construction could be proved, consists of eleven arches, a drawbridge for letting vessels pass, distinct raised foot-ways and landing-places, &c. The beauty of the model, and the excellency of its execution, leave every thing of the sort very far behind. The Empress Catharine rewarded the artificer with a present of four thousand rubles, and he has ever since been employed by the court.—Among the more capital undertakers of this class are people who keep warehouses of ready-made goods for sale; one in particular, who has by him to the amount of several thousand rubles, in inlaid or parquetté floors of all kinds of wood, patterns, and colours, that only require to be put together, which may be done in a few days. Another confines himself to the making of coffins, of which he keeps a great quantity, of every form and size, and at all prices. Several of these dealers on a large scale have neither shop nor tools, nor journeymen, but engage only in podriads; for example, to execute all the timber and wood work in a new-built house, and then take on the necessary workmen, over whom they act as surveyors.—Before we dismiss this subject, a man and his work must be mentioned, who does honour to his country, Germany; and in his line has excelled any thing that the most refined ingenuity of England and France has ever produced. The name of this man is Röntgen; he is a native of Neuwied, and belongs to the sect of Moravian Brethren. He has lived many years, at several times, in St. Petersburg, and has embellished and enriched the

palaces of the monarch and the great personages of the court with the astonishing productions of his art. In the Imperial hermitage are a great many pieces of furniture, cabinets, clocks, and other works, of his invention and execution. They are composed of the greatest variety of woods, to which the artist, by a certain preparation, has given a peculiar hardness and durability; and which, by the most laborious and extraordinary mode of polishing, have received a glo's which needs no rubbing for its preservation. The workmanship of these pieces is not less wonderful than their invention; not a joint is visible; all is fitted so exactly together as though it were molten at one cast: some are inlaid with bronzework of the most beautiful and diversified gilding; others with bas-reliefs, gems, and antiquities. But the most superlative production of this artist is a bureau or writing-desk, which the Empress presented to the museum of the Academy of Sciences about eighteen years ago. Here the genius of the inventor has lavished its riches and its fertility in the greatest variety of compositions: all seems the work of enchantment. On opening this amazing desk, in front appears a beautiful group of bas-reliefs in bronze, superbly gilt; which, by the slightest pressure on a spring, vanishes away, giving place to a magnificent writing-flat, inlaid with gems. The space above this flat is devoted to the keeping of valuable papers or money. The bold hand that should dare to invade this spot would immediately be its own betrayer: for, at the least touch of the table part, the most charming strains of soft and plaintive music instantly begin to play upon the ear; the organ from whence it proceeds occupying the lower part of the desk behind. Several small drawers for holding the materials for writing, &c. likewise start forward by the pressure of their springs, and shut again as quickly, without leaving behind a trace of their existence. If one would change the table part of the bureau into a reading-desk, from the upper part a board springs forward, from which, with incredible velocity, all the parts of a commodious and well-contrived reading-desk expand, and take their proper places. But the mechanism of this performance of art, as well as its outward ornaments, should be seen, as nothing

nothing can be more difficult to describe. The inventor offered this rare and astonishing piece to the Empress Catharine II. for twenty thousand rubles; but she generously thought that this sum would be barely sufficient to pay for the workmanship: she therefore recompensed his talent with a farther present of five thousand rubles."

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(To be continued.)

LXXXII. *A Tour through Germany; particularly along the Banks of the Rhine, Mayne, &c. and that Part of the Palatinate, Rhingaw, &c. usually termed the Garden of Germany. To which is added, a concise Vocabulary of familiar Phrases, &c. in German and English; for the Use of Travellers. By the Rev. Dr. RENDER, Native of Germany. 2 vols. 8vo. pp. 775. 16s. Longman and Rees.*

CONTENTS.

VOL. I.

A PRELIMINARY Account of Germany—Frankfort on the Mayn, and the adjacent Country—Mentz, and the adjacent Country—The Palatinate—The Rhingaw.

VOL. II.

COLOGNE—Westphalia—The Dutches of Berg, Cleves, Guilders, and Juliers—Munster—Osnaburg—Paderborn—Mindem—Techlenburg—Account of the Secret Tribunals in Westphalia—Hamburg—Bremen—Emden—Hanover—Gottingen—Hartz, or the Hercenian Mountain—A concise View of the present State of the whole German Empire—A German and English Vocabulary of easy Words.

EXTRACTS.

FRANCFORT—ABOLITION OF FUNERAL POMP.

" DURING the reign of the late Emperor Joseph II. many salutary laws were established in this and other Imperial cities. It ought to be remarked, that

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all these stand immediately under the protection of the Emperor; on which account he has a great influence in their government. This power in some degree extends, likewise, over all the German princes; and the Emperor's commands are in general strictly obeyed; particularly where they concern the interest of the whole Empire.

" The old custom of indulging extravagantly in the expense of funeral pomp and costly mourning, by which many families had nearly ruined themselves, has been altogether abolished in Frankfort, and almost throughout the Empire.

" A burial, including the mourning for the whole household and relations, formerly often amounted (according to the rank and nobility of a family) to several thousand guilders, and those of less rank to several hundreds. At Frankfort, in particular, funerals have been conducted with an uncommon degree of expensive solemnity. Several men, clothed in black cloaks, with an appendage of a black veil of about three yards long, forming a train behind and sweeping the ground, were employed for the space of three days to invite about one hundred and fifty, or two hundred mourners, to walk in procession after the coffin. All the family, relations, and friends of the deceased in the same dress, with each a lemon in his hand, accompanied the corpse in so many mourning coaches. The bier was carried by twelve persons, who in their way to the churchyard, according to the distance, stopped at intervals in the open street, and uncovered the coffin, to expose the face of the deceased. A band of singers, three days preceding the burial, assembled in the streets before the house, chanting for an hour a solemn dirge. When the corpse was carried to the ground, the singers followed in a coach, and chanted round the grave. The crucifix was at all funerals carried before the corpse, without any regard to the particular religion of the deceased. That of a nobleman was conducted in the same manner, but with far greater pomp. It commenced in the night-time at eleven o'clock, and all the mourners and choristers, amounting to several hundreds, with each a double torch in his hands, preceded the corpse. This strange and ruinous custom was at once abolished by law. At present a funeral

in Germany, be the person ever so rich, or even of the highest class of nobility, is not attended with an expense of more than fifty guilders, or about five pounds English, at the most; and those of less fortune not more than ten guilders, and frequently not so much.

"These solemnities generally take place about the third or fourth day after the person's death. The body is interred without pomp, parade, or show, an hour after daybreak. Mourning is wholly abolished, and prohibited under a heavy penalty, even to the mere wearing of a black crape or riband.

"This salutary law was first observed at the desire of the amiable and much-beloved Landgravine of Hesse Darmstadt, who before her death commanded, that twelve private soldiers of the horse-guards should carry her remains to the grave, and to be buried in an adjacent grove of a public garden. Her grave is to be seen at the present moment; and many English families who travel through Frankfurt, go to Darmstadt, which is distant about twelve English miles, in order to visit her tomb; on the top of which stands a small urn of white marble, which the great Frederic II. King of Prussia, sent from Potsdam with this short epitaph engraven on it, namely, 'To the memory of my beloved friend and dear relation,' in token of the esteem he had for that universally beloved princess. Her example was followed by her husband, the late Landgrave of Hesse Darmstadt. He was a true friend of mankind, and so peculiarly attached was he to his army, that he desired to be buried among his soldiers." *Vol. i. p. 61.*

SALUTARY LAWS AGAINST BURYING THE DEAD IN CHURCHES.

"ABOUT fifteen years ago a truly excellent law was passed and observed with great punctuality in Frankfurt, as well as in all other parts of the Empire, of which the Emperor Joseph was the

legislator, and which deserves to be imitated in many foreign countries. This law prohibits the burying of dead bodies in any church or chapel whatever. Neither rank nor opulence can obtain permission to evade it, in the enforcement of which no respect is paid to persons. 'It is horrid,' said the deceased Emperor, 'that a place of worship, a temple of the Supreme Being, should be converted into a pest-house for living creatures. A person, who upon his death-bed makes it a condition of his will to be buried in a church or chapel, acts like a madman; he ought to set his fellow-creatures a good example, and not do all in his power to destroy their constitutions, by exposing them to the effluvia arising from a corpse in a state of putrefaction.'" *Vol. i. p. 63.*

"Since that time, the Germans have even begun to remove the burying-places a mile or two from every city or town; by which means they have abolished, or paved the way towards abolishing, all the nonsensical epitaphs and laughable inscriptions which generally abound in churchyards, and too often disgrace the memory they mean to celebrate; and have substituted for the offensive cemetery an agreeable kind of garden, more calculated to inspire calm devotion than sentiments of horror.

"It is shocking to contrast this with many small towns in European countries, where there may frequently be seen fourteen or fifteen churchyards, when one on an extensive scale, out of the town, would be fully sufficient to answer every good purpose*." *Vol. i. p. 72.*

OLD HOCK.

"THE wine produced in the circuit of Hochheim, whence the English derive the name 'Old Hock,' is hardly one mile in length, and about half a mile in breadth. In years of abundance this spot produces rarely more than about two hundred

* "During my residence at the university of Cambridge, I observed that half the space of the town consisted of churchyards. There are no less than fifteen parishes, and as many churchyards; and it is remarkable, that many of them contain a public pump! Even in the city of London there are several public pumps, either in churchyards or close to them; and it is very singular, that the water is generally esteemed for its excellence."

hogheads.

bogheads. Most of this wine belongs to the chapters of Mentz, and consequently is generally consumed by the prelates themselves. They, however, make some presents of it to the Emperor, Pope, cardinals, and some of the most eminent princes in Germany. The quantity which is sold and sent abroad is very trifling. There are places which produce as excellent wine as that of Hochheim, as Nierstein, Rüdesheim, and that of Worms, called *Leibfrau Milch*, i. e. 'Virgins Milk,' and likewise in various other places, which wines are generally exported under the same name as that above named Old Hock. However, the misinformed Englishman still retains his prejudice of erroneously calling all Rhenish wines 'Old Hock.' Vol. i. p. 151.

THE WESTPHALIAN SECRET TRIBUNALS

"ARE first mentioned as generally known in the year 1220, and reported to have been in force to the year 1665. They were never formally abrogated, but lost their influence by degrees, as the sword of justice was wielded by vigorous hands. The Westphalian Secret Tribunals were at first only designed for that country alone, and had no jurisdiction whatever elsewhere. The extent of their power was limited on the west by the Rhine, on the east by the Weser, on the north by Friesland, and on the south by the 'Westwald,' i. e. the western Forest and Hesse." Vol. ii. p. 186.

"The Emperor being supreme judge of all secular courts of judicature in Germany, was also the sole institutor and chief of all tribunals.

"Free counties, being certain districts comprehending several parishes, where the judges and counsellors of the Secret Ban administered justice, conformably to the territorial statutes. A free county contained several tribunals subject to the control of one *master of the chair*, 'Stuhlherr.' These masters of the chair, who commonly were secular or ecclesiastical princes, held their appointment by the will of the Emperor, which they forfeited by deciding in matters not within their jurisdiction, or on deviating from the laws of the free tribunals. They ap-

pointed the *free counts*, 'Frey-Grafen,' who were presidents of particular tribunals of the Secret Ban. They were presented by the masters of their chair to the Emperor for confirmation, who were made responsible for them, upon which they were invested with the Royal Ban, and obliged to swear fealty and obedience to the Head of the Empire. The latter also could punish the free counts, or deprive them of their office; occupy the seat of a free count in the tribunals, decide in matters of appeal brought before him, inspect and reform the tribunals, and appoint the free knights, i. e. 'Frey-Schoffen'; but this was confined to the territory of Westphalia." Vol. ii. p. 187.

"The number of these free knights, belonging to each tribunal, never was less than seven, nor did it amount to more than eleven. Seven free knights, at least, were required to compose a plenary court, i. e. 'Vollgericht,' in which the final sentence was pronounced. Knights of other tribunals were indeed permitted to be present on these occasions as visitors, but were not allowed to give their vote. On their reception they promised upon oath, to give information to the Secret Tribunal of every thing coming under its jurisdiction, perceived by themselves, or reported to them by creditable persons, and not to suffer any thing created betwixt heaven and earth, to divert them from the execution of their duty. They also bound themselves to promote the interest of the sacred Roman Empire, and to invade the possessions of the masters of the chair, and of the free courts, only on legal grounds. After having taken this oath, they were not permitted to reveal, even to their confessors, the secrets of the tribunal; and on transgressing this law, though only in the most trifling point, they were hanged without mercy. They pronounced judgment according to the statutes of the Westphalian Secret Tribunal, and executed it conformably to the decrees of the free courts. They knew each other by certain secret signs.

"The original constitution of the Secret Tribunals did, however, not long continue in force; all sorts of abandoned characters being admitted. The number of free knights allowed to every tribunal was originally limited to

to eleven, but in a short time many of them amounted to sixty or seventy, who even were not possessed of an inch of landed property in Westphaly, and were induced by self-interest, ambition, and revenge, or some other disgraceful motive, to join the association. The meeting-places of the members of the Secret Tribunals degenerated into haunts of sanguinary banditti, who indiscriminately assassinated the innocent with the guilty. The masters of the chair being actuated by the most Fordid avarice, they divided the free countries into numerous smaller seats of justice, whereby the number of spies and secret informers naturally was increased to a most prodigious degree, and various opportunities offered for fraud, imposition, and extortion. Although they were originally authorized to pronounce sentence only in criminal cases, in order to increase their fees they at length interfered in private and domestic affairs, and contrived to lay even counts and princes under contribution. On their admission, they vowed in the most solemn and awful manner, to judge with incorruptible impartiality, to regard no person, and even to be deaf to every emotion of the heart, in framing their decrees; but on the contrary, they were swayed by selfishness, accessible to corruption, partial to their friends, while they prosecuted their enemies with the most rancorous malice, and prostituted their function by rendering their authority subservient to the gratification of the most brutal lust. They were deaf to the lamentations of calumniated innocence, assassinated their relations to inherit their estates, and were more dreadful to the virtuous than the midnight ruffian. A free count frequently acted at once as witness and as judge; the spy, informer, witness, and judge, were in many instances united in the same person; in short, the abuses which disgraced the Secret Tribunals, rendered them a real curse to mankind.

" In the beginning of the 15th century, their power in Germany rose to a most alarming degree; and we may safely maintain that the German Empire at that time contained more than 140,000 free knights, who, without either previous notice or trial, executed every one who was condemned by the Secret Ban. Austrians, Bavarians,

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Franconians, and Suabians, having a demand on any one whom they could not bring to justice before the regular courts of this country, applied to the Westphalian Secret Tribunal, where they obtained a summons, and in case of non-appearance, a sentence, which was immediately communicated to the whole fraternity of free knights, a step by which were put in motion an host of executioners, bound by the most dreadful oath to spare neither father nor mother, nor to regard the sacred ties of friendship or matrimonial love. If a free knight met a friend condemned by the Secret Ban, and gave him only the slightest hint to save his life by flight, all the other free knights were bound to hang him seven feet higher than any other criminal. The sentence being pronounced in the Secret Ban, they were obliged to put it into immediate execution, and not permitted to make the least remonstrance, though they were perfectly convinced that the victim was the best of men, and innocent of the crime alleged against him. This induced almost every man of rank and power to become a member of that dreadful association, in order to secure himself against its effects. Every prince had some free knights among his counsellors, and the majority of the German nobility belonged to that secret order. Even princes, for instance, the Duke of Bavaria and the Margrave of Brandenburgh, were members of the Secret Tribunal. The Duke William of Brunswic is reported to have said: ' I must order the Duke Adolphus of Schleswig to be hanged, if he should come to see me, lest the free knights should hang me.' It was difficult to elude the proceedings of the free knights, as they at all times contrived to steal at night, unknown and unseen, to the gates of castles, palaces, and towns, and to affix the summons of the Secret Tribunal. When this had been done three times, and the accused did not appear, he was condemned by the Secret Ban, and summoned once more to submit to the execution of the sentence; and in case of non-appearance, he was solemnly outlawed, and then the invisible hands of free knights followed all his steps till they found an opportunity of taking away his life. When a free knight thought himself too weak to seize and hang the culprit, he was bound to pur-

sue him till he met with some of his colleagues, who assisted him in hanging him to a tree, near the high road, and not to a gibbet; signifying thereby that they exercised a free imperial judicature throughout the whole Empire, independent of all provincial tribunals. If the devoted victim made resistance, so as to compel them to poignard him; they tied the dead body to a tree, fixing the dagger over his head, to show that he had not been murdered, but executed by a free knight.

" Their transactions were shrouded in the most profound concealment: and the signal by which they recognised one another never could be discovered. Their secret proceedings were not permitted to be disclosed to the Emperor himself, although he was supreme master of the chair. Only when he asked, ' Has N. N. been condemned?' the free knights were allowed to reply in the affirmative or negative: but when he inquired ' Who had been condemned by the Secret Ban?' they were not permitted to mention any name.

" The Emperor, or his delegate, could create free knights no where but on the 'red soil,' i.e. Westphaly, with the assistance of three free knights, who acted as witnesses. The real signification of the term, *red soil*, and the reason why it was applied to Westphaly, has not yet been traced out; but during my stay in that country, I learnt the following particulars concerning it, which seemed to me most probable. They informed me, that the terms *red soil* were used as a nickname, to distinguish the Westphalian country, in which this abominable bloody tribunal had been first established, from those milder ones of the same kind in Germany. For *Red soil*, i.e. ' Rother grund,' or

' Himmels-strich,' or ' Himmels-geg-gend,' became its most forcible and current name, from a noble family, which was successively subject to the barbarity of those bloodhounds. When any of its descendants happened to ask what had become of their ancestors, they were generally answered with the nickname, ' They have wandered to 'the Red soil,' i.e. to the *Soil that is stained with blood*. For *red* signifies in German not only *roth*, but also *blood-red*; and *soil* signifies *Erde*. Thus 'blutrothe erde,' *blood-red soil!*' Vol. ii. p. 191.

LXXXIII. *Strutt's Sports and Pastimes of the People of England.* (Continued from p. 426.)

HAWKING, &c.

" **HAWKING**, or the art of training and flying of hawks, for the purpose of catching other birds*, is generally placed at the head of those amusements that can only be practised in the country; and probably it obtained this precedence from its being a pastime so generally followed by the nobility, not in this country only, but also upon the continent. Persons of high rank rarely appeared without their dogs and their hawks; the latter they carried with them when they journeyed from one country to another, and sometimes even when they went to battle, and would not part with them to procure their own liberty when taken prisoners. These birds were considered as ensigns of nobility; and no action could be reckoned more dishonourable to a man of rank than to give up his hawk†.

" Sebastian

* " It is also very frequently called *falconry* or *faucoutry*; and the person who had the care of the hawks is denominated the *falconer*, but never, I believe, the *hawker*."

" The Mews at Charing Cross, Westminster, so called, from the word *mew*, which, in the falconers' language, is the name of a place, wherein the hawks are put at the moult time, when they cast their feathers. The king's hawks were kept at this place as early as the year 1377, an. 1 Richard II.; but A.D. 1537, the 27th year of Henry VIII. it was converted into stables for that monarch's horses, and the hawks were removed. See Stow's Survey of London." P. 28.

† " Memoires des Inscript. tom. ix. p. 542. The ancient English illuminators have uniformly distinguished the portrait of King Stephen by giving him a hawk upon

“ Sebastian Brant, a native of Germany*, accuses his countrymen of bringing their hawkes and hounds into the churches, and interrupting the divine service; which indecency he severely reprobates, and with the greatest justice. The passage is thus translated by Alexander Barclay :

- ‘ Into the church then comes another fotte,
- ‘ Withouten devotion, jetting up and down,
- ‘ Or to be seene, and shewe his garded cote.
- ‘ Another on his fiste a sparhawk or fawcone,
- ‘ Or else a cokow; wafting so his shone;
- ‘ Before the auter he to and fro doth wander,
- ‘ With even as great devotion as doth a gander.
- ‘ In comes another, his houndes at his tayle,
- ‘ With lynes and leafes, and other like baggage;
- ‘ His dogges barke, so that withouten fayle,
- ‘ The whole church is troubled by their outrage.’

“ I cannot trace the origin of hawking to an earlier period than the middle of the fourth century. Julius Firmicus, who lived about that time, is the first Latin author that speaks of falconers, and the art of teaching one species of birds to fly after and catch others. An English writer, upon what authority I know not, says, that hawking was first invented and practised by Frederic Barbarossa, when he besieged Rome. It appears, however, to be very certain that this amusement was discovered abroad, when it became fashionable, sometime before it was known in this country: the period of its introduction cannot be clearly determined; but, about the middle of the eighth century, Winifred, or Boniface, archbishop of Mona, who was himself a native of England, presented to Ethelbert, king of Kent, one hawk and two falcons; and a king of the Mercians requested the same Winifred

to send to him two falcons that had been trained to kill cranes. In the succeeding century, the sport was very highly esteemed by the Anglo-Saxon nobility; and the training and flying of hawks became one of the essentials in the education of a young man of rank. Alfred the Great is commended for his early proficiency in this, as well as in other fashionable amusements: he is even said to have written a treatise upon the subject of hawking; but there is no such work at present in existence, that can with any degree of certainty be attributed to him. The pastime of hawking must, no doubt, at this period, have been very generally followed, to call for the prohibition inserted in a charter granted to the abbey of Abington, by Kenulph, king of the Mercians; which restrains all persons from carrying of hawks, and thereby trespassing upon the lands belonging to the monks who resided therein.” P. 18.

“ Edward III. according to Froissart, had with him in his army, when he invaded France, thirty falconers on horseback, who had charge of his hawks; and every day he either hunted, or went to the river for the purpose of hawking, as his fancy inclined him. From the frequent mention that is made of hawking by the water-side, not only by the historians, but also by the romance-writers of the middle ages, I suppose that the pursuit of water-fowls afforded the most diversion. The author last quoted, speaking of the Earl of Flanders, says, he was always at the river, where his falconer cast off one falcon after the heron, and the Earl another. In the poetical romance of the ‘ Squire of low Degree,’ the King of Hungary promises his daughter, that, at her return from hunting, she should hawk by the river-side, with gos hawk, gentle falcon, and other well-tutored birds; so also Chaucer, in the rhyme of Sir Thopas, says, that he could hunt the wild deer,

- ‘ And ryde on haukyng by the ryver,
- ‘ With grey gos hawke in hande.’

“ An anonymous writer, of the se-

upon his hand, to signify, I presume, by that symbol, that he was nobly, though not royally born. See the Regal and Ecclesiastical Antiquities of England.”

* “ The author of a work entitled, ‘ Stulifera Navis,’ the ship of fools, published towards the conclusion of the fifteenth century.”

venteenth century, records the following anecdote: ‘Sir Thomas Jermin, going out with his servants, and brooke hawkes one evening, at Bury, they were no sooner abroad, but fowle were found, and he called out to one of his falconers, off with your jerkin; the fellow being into the wind did not heare him; at which he stormed, and still cried out, off with your jerkin, you knave, off with your jerkin. Now it fell out that there was, at that instant, a plaine townsmen of Bury, in a freeze jerkin, stood betwixt him and his falconer, who seeing Sir Thomas in such a rage, and thinking he had spoken to him, unbuttoned himself amaine, threw off his jerkin, and besought his worshippe not to be offended, for he woulde off with his doublet too, to give him content.’” P. 22.

“Hawking was performed on horseback, or on foot, as occasion required: on horseback, when in the fields and open country; and on foot when in the woods and coverts. In following the hawk on foot, it was usual for the sportsman to have a stout pole with him, to affish him in leaping over little rivulets and ditches, which might otherwise prevent him in his progress; and this we learn from an historical fact related by Hall; who informs us, that Henry VIII. purusing his hawk on foot, at Hitchen, in Hertfordshire, attempted, with the assistance of his pole, to jump over a ditch that was half full of muddy water; the pole broke, and the King fell with his head into the mud, where he would have been stifled, had not a footman, named John Moody, who was near at hand, and seeing the accident, leaped into the ditch, and released his Majesty from his perilous situation: ‘and so,’ says the honest historian, ‘God of hys goodnessse pre-served him.’” P. 23.

HORSE-RACING.

“TWO centuries back horse-racing was considered as a liberal pastime, practised for pleasure rather than profit, without the least idea of reducing it to a system of gambling. It is ranked with hunting and hawking, and opposed to dice and card-playing by an old Scotch poet, who laments that the latter had in great measure superseded

the former. One of the puritanical writers, in the reign of Elizabeth, who, though he is very severe against cards, dice, vain plays, interludes, and other idle pastimes, allows of horse-racing as ‘yielding good exercise,’ which he certainly would not have done, had it been in the least degree obnoxious to the censure which at present it so justly claims.

“Burton, who wrote at the decline of the seventeenth century, says sarcastically, ‘Horse-races are despots of great men, and good in themselves, though many gentlemen by such means gallop quite out of their fortunes,’ which may be considered as a plain indication, that they had begun to be productive of mischief at the time he wrote; and fifty years afterwards, they were the occasion of a new and destructive species of gambling. The following lines are from a ballad, in D’Urfey’s collection of songs. It is called ‘New Market,’ which place was then famous for the exhibition of horse-races.

- Let cullies that lose at a race,
- Go venture at hazard to win,
- Or he that is bubbled at dice
- Recover at cocking again;
- Let jades that are founder’d be bought,
- Let jockeys play crimp to make sport.—
- Another makes racing a trade,
- And dreams of his projects to come;
- And many a crimp match has made,
- By bubbling another man’s groom.

“From what has been said, it seems clear enough, that this pastime was originally practised in England for the sake of exercise, or by way of emulation; and, generally speaking, the owners of the horses were the riders. These contests, however, attracted the notice of the populace, and drew great crowds of people together to behold them; which induced the inhabitants of many towns and cities to affix certain times for the performance of such sports, and prizes were appointed as rewards for the successful candidates.

“In the reign of James I. public races were established in many parts of the kingdom; and it is said, that the discipline and modes of preparing the horses upon such occasions, were much the same as are practised in the present day.

day. The races were then called *bell courses*, because the prize was a *silver bell*.

"At the latter end of the reign of Charles I. races were held in Hyde Park and at New Market. After the Restoration, horse-racing was revived and much encouraged by Charles II. who frequently honoured this pastime with his presence; and for his own amusement, when he resided at Windsor, appointed races to be made in Datchet Mead. At New Market, where it is said he entered horses and run them in his name, he established a house for his better accommodation; and he also occasionally visited other places where horse-races were instituted." P. 35.

"At this time, it seems that the bells were converted into cups, or bowls, or some other pieces of plate, which were usually valued at one hundred guineas each; and upon these trophies of victory the exploits and pedigree of the successful horses were most commonly engraved. William III. was also a patroniser of this pastime, and established an academy for riding; and his Queen not only continued the bounty of her predecessors, but added several plates to the former donations. George I. instead of a piece of plate, gave an hundred guineas to be paid in specie." P. 37.

ARCHERY.

"AMONG the arts that have been carried to a high degree of perfection in this kingdom, there is no one more conspicuous than that of archery. Our ancestors used the bow for a double purpose: in time of war, it was a dreadful instrument of destruction; and in peace it became an object of amusement. It will be needless to insist upon the skill of the English archers, or to mention their wonderful performances in the field of battle. The victories they obtained over their enemies are many and glorious; they are their best eulogiums, and stand upon record in the histories of this country, for the perusal, and for the admiration of posterity." P. 38.

"The Anglo-Saxons and the Danes were certainly well acquainted with the use of the bow; a knowledge they derived at an early period from their progenitors. The Scandinavian seafarers, speaking in praise of the heroes of their

country, frequently add to the rest of their acquirements a superiority of skill in handling of the bow. It does not, however, appear, that this skill was extended beyond the purpose of procuring food or for pastime, either by the Saxons or by the Danes, in times anterior to the Conquest." P. 39.

"It is well known that the Normans used the bow as a military weapon; and, under their government, the practice of archery was not only much improved, but generally diffused throughout the kingdom." P. 39.

"In the twenty-third year of the reign of Edward I. the Earl of Warwick had in his army a number of soldiers called *Ballifarii*; and this word is translated *crois-bow men* by our chronicle-writers; but certainly it may with equal propriety be rendered *flingers*, or *casters of stones*, who frequently formed a part of the Anglo-Norman armies.

"From this period we hear but little concerning the crois-bows, as military weapons, until the battle of Cressy; at which time they were used by a large body of Genoese soldiers, who were particularly expert in the management of these weapons, and assisted the French upon that memorable occasion; but their efforts were ineffectual when opposed to the archery of the English. Previous to the commencement of the battle there fell a sharp shower of rain, which wetted the strings of the crois-bows; and, we are told, in great measure prevented the archers from doing their usual execution; but the strings of the long-bows used by the Englishmen do not appear to have been damaged in the least by the rain; this might arise from their being made with different materials; or, more probably, from their being kept with the bows, in the bow-caes, during the continuance of the shower; for every man had a case of canvas, or of some such material, to draw over his bow when he had done using of it.

"In the succeeding annals the crois-bow is continually spoken of as a weapon of war. The year after the celebrated victory was obtained at Cressy, Charles Earl of Blois, at the siege of Le Roche de Rien, had no less than 2000 crois-bow men in his army. The crois-bow was used by the English soldiery chiefly at sieges of fortified places, and

and on shipboard, in battles upon the sea. But the great fame acquired by our countrymen in archery, was derived from their practice with the longbow; and to this instrument they gave the preference." P. 41.

" The length of the bow is not clearly ascertained; those used by the soldiery appear, in the manuscript drawings, to have been as tall, at least, as the bearers; agreeable to an ordinance made in the fifth year of Edward IV. commanding every man to have a bow his own height; and they might, upon the average, be something short of six feet long. The arrows used by the English archers at the memorable battle of Agincourt were a full yard in length. Carew, in his Survey of Cornwall, says, 'The Cornish archers for long shooting, used arrows a cloth yard long.' The old and more modern ballads of Chevy Chace speak of the arrow as being the length of a cloth yard; but some of these poetical legends extend it an ell.

" Hall mentions a company of archers, who met King Henry VIII. at Shooter's Hill, on a May-day morning, where they discharged their bows in his presence, and the arrows made a loud whistling in their flight, 'by craste of the heade.' The strangeness of the noise, we are informed, surprised his Majesty, though at the same time he was much pleased with the contrivance. A modern author* assures us, this sound was occasioned by holes being made in the arrow heads, and that such weapons were used upon military occasions, and especially as signals; but not, I presume, before the time mentioned by the historian; for had not those arrows been newly introduced, there is no reason why the King, who was well acquainted with every branch of archery, should have been surprised at the sound they made, or pleased at the sight of them.

" If the metrical romances and ballads of the former ages may be depended upon, the strength of our English archers in drawing of the bow, and their skill in directing the arrow to its mark, were justly the objects of admiration.

" The reader, I trust, will pardon

the insertion of the following extracts from two old poetical legends, which convey, at least, some idea of the practice of archery in times anterior to our own; the first is a ballad in eight *syntes*, or parts, entitled, 'A mery Geste of Robyn Hoode.' According to the story, the King thought proper to pay Robin Hood a visit, disguised in the habit of an abbot: and the outlaw, by way of entertaining his guest, proposed a shooting-match. Two wands were then set up, but at so great a distance from each other, that,

- By fyfty space our Kyng sayde,
 - The markes were to longe.—
 - On every syde a rose garlante,
 - The shot under the lyne.
 - Whofo faileth of the rose garland,
 - faid Robyn,
 - His takyll he thal tyne;
 - And yelde it to his master,
 - Be it never so fine.—
 - Twyse Robyn shot about,
 - And ever he cleveth the wande.—
- And so did Gilbert, Little John, and Scathelocke, his companions; but,
- At the last shot, that Robyn shot,
 - For all his frendes fore,
 - Yet he fayled of the garland,
 - Three fyngers and more—

of course his 'takill' was forfeited, which he presented to the King, saying,

• Syr Abbot, I deliver thee myne arrowe."

" The second poem is also of the ballad kind, and apparently as old as the former, wherein Adam Bell, Clym of the Cloughe, and William Cloudesle, are introduced to shoot before the King. The butts, or dead marks set up by the King's archers, were censured by Cloudesle, saying,

- I hold hym never no good archer,
 - That shotteth at buttes so wide—
- and having procured two 'hasell' rods, he set them up at the distance of four hundred yards from each other; his first attempt in shooting at them, contrary to the expectation of the King, was successful, for it is said,
- Cloudesle with a baryng arowe
 - Clave the wand in two."

* " Honourable Daines Barrington. Observations on the Practice of Archery. *Archæologia*, vol. vii. p. 58."

The King being much surprised at the performance, told him he was the best archer he ever saw. Cloudele then proposed to show him a more extraordinary proof of his skill, and tied his eldest son, a child only seven years old, to a stake, and placed an apple upon his head; one hundred and twenty yards were measured from the stake, and Cloudele went to the end of the measurement: he first entreated the spectators to be silent,

' And then drew out a fayre brode arrowe;

' Hys bow was great and longe,

' He set that arrowe in his bowe

' That was both stiffe and stronge.

' Then Cloudele cleft the apple in two,

' As many a man myght se,

' Over Gods forbode, fayde the Kynge,

' That thou shoulde shote at me.'

" If we were to judge of the merits of the ancient bowmen from the practice of archery as it is exercised in the present day, these poetical eulogiums would appear to be entirely fictitious. There are no such distances now assigned for the *marks* as are mentioned above, nor such precision even at *short lengths* in the direction of the arrows. I believe few, if any, of the modern archers, in long shooting, reach four hundred yards; or in shooting at a mark, exceed the distance of eighty or an hundred. I have seen the gentlemen who practise archery in the vicinity of London, repeatedly shoot from end to end, and not touch the target with an arrow; and for the space of several hours, without lodging one in the *circle of gold*, about six inches diameter in the centre of the target: this, indeed, is so seldom done, that one is led to think, when it happens, it is rather the effect of chance than of skill; which proves what Alcham has asserted, that an archer should be well taught early in life, and confirm the good teaching by continual practice afterwards. We may also recollect that archery is now followed for amusement only, and is to be commended as a manly and gentleman-like exercise."

P. 49.

" Carew, speaking of the Cornish archers two centuries back, says, ' For long shooting, their shaft was a cloth yard in length, and their pricks twenty-four score paces, equal to four hundred and eighty yards; and for strength, they would pierce any ordinary armour;' he then adds, ' and one Robert Arundell, whom I well knew, could shooft twelve score paces with his right hand, with his left, and from behind his head.' This puts me in mind of a curious anecdote related by Hall: ' There came to hys Grace King Henry the Eighth, a certayn man, with a bowe and arrowe, and he defyred his Grace to take the muster of hym, and to see him shooft; for that tyme hys Grace was contented; the man put hys one fote in hys bofome, and so dyd shooft, and shooft a very good shooft, and well towardes hys marke; whereof, not onely his Grace, but all others greatly merveyled; so the Kynge gave him a rewarde,' and for this curious feat he afterwards obtained the by-name of *Fote in Bafone*.

" The same monarch having appointed a great match of archery at Windsor, a citizen of London, named Barlow, an inhabitant of Shoreditch, joined the archers, and surpassed them all in skill; the King was so much pleased with his performance, that he jocosely gave him the title of Duke of Shoreditch; and this title the captain of the London archers retained for a considerable time afterwards. In the reign of Elizabeth, a grand shooting-match was held in London, and the captain of the archers assuming his title of Duke of Shoreditch, summoned a suit of nominal nobility, under the titles of Marquis of Barlo, of Clerkenwell, of Islington, of Hoxton, of Shacklewell, and Earl of Pancras, &c. and these meeting together at the appointed time, with their different companies, proceeded in a pompous march from Merchant Taylors' Hall, consisting of 3000 archers, sumptuously apparelled*; 942 of them having chains of gold about their necks. This splendid company was guarded by 4000 whiffers and billmen, besides pages

* " Strype says, ' odly habited:' every man had a long bow, and four arrows. With the Marquis of Barlo and the Marquis of Clerkenwell were ' Hunters who wound their horns.' Stow's Survey of London by Strype, vol. i, p. 250."

and footmen. They passed through Broad Street, the residence of their captain, and thence into Moorfields, by Finsbury, and so on to Smithfield, where having performed several evolutions, they shot at a target for honour.

"Another cavalcade of like kind was made by the London archers in the reign of Charles II. and the King himself was present; but being a wet day, his Majesty was obliged to leave the field soon after the arrival of the bowmen." *P. 53.*

WRESTLING.

"THE art of wrestling, which in the present day is chiefly confined to the lower classes of the people, was however highly esteemed by the ancients, and made a very considerable figure among the Olympic games. In the ages of chivalry, to wrestle well was counted one of the accomplishments which an hero ought to possess.

"Wrestling is a kind of exercise that, from its nature, is likely to have been practised by every nation, and especially by those the least civilized. It was probably well known in this country long before the introduction of foreign manners. The inhabitants of Cornwall and Devon have, we are well assured, from time immemorial, been celebrated for their expertness in this pastime, and are universally said to be the best wrestlers in the kingdom*. They learned the art at an early period of life, for you shall hardly find, says Carew, an assembly of boys in Devon and Cornwall, where the most unmerciful among them will not as readily give you a muster of this exercise as you are prone to require it.

"The citizens of London, in times past, are said to have been expert in the art of wrestling, and annually upon St. James's day they were accustomed to make a public trial of their skill. In the sixth year of Henry III. they

* "To give a Cornish hug is a proverbial expression. The Cornish, says Fuller, are masters of the art of wrestling, so that if the Olympian games were now in fashion, they would come away with the victory. Their hug is a cunning close with their fellow combatants, the fruits whereof is his fair fall or foil at the least. Worthies of England, in Cornwall, p. 197."

+ Matthew Paris. Hist. Ang. sub an. 1222. Stow informs us that in the thirty-first year of Henry VI. A. D. 1453, at a wrestling match near Clerkenwell, another tumult was excited against the lord mayor; but he does not say upon what occasion it arose."

* horseback.

held their anniversary meeting for this purpose near the hospital of St. Matilda, at St. Giles's in the fields, where they were met by the inhabitants of the city and suburbs of Westminster, and a ram was appointed for the prize: the Londoners were victorious, having greatly excelled their antagonists, which produced a challenge from the conquered party, to renew the contest upon the Lammas day following at Westminster: the citizens of London readily consented, and met them accordingly; but in the midst of the diversion, the bailiff of Westminster and his associates took occasion to quarrel with the Londoners; a battle ensued, and many of the latter were severely wounded in making their retreat to the city. This unjustifiable petulance of the bailiff gave rise to a more serious tumult, and it was several days before the peace could be restored†.

"In old time, says a very accurate historian, wrestling was more used than it has been of later years. In the month of August, adds he, about the feast of St. Bartholomew, there were divers days spent in wrestling; the lord mayor, aldermen, and sheriffs, being present in a large tent pitched for that purpose near Clerkenwell. Upon this occasion the officers of the city, namely, the sheriffs, sergeants, and yeomen, the porters of the King's beam or weighing-house, and others of the city, gave a general challenge to such of the inhabitants of the suburbs as thought themselves expert in this exercise; but of late years, continues he, the wrestling is only practised on the afternoon of St. Bartholomew's day. The latter ceremony is thus described by a foreign writer, who was an eye-witness to the performance: 'When,' says he, 'the mayor goes out of the precincts of the city, a sceptre, a sword, and a cap, are borne before him, and he is followed by the principal aldermen in scarlet gowns with golden chains; himself and they on

"horseback. Upon their arrival at a place appointed for that purpose, where a tent is pitched for their reception, the mob begin to wrestle before them two at a time." He also adds a circumstance not recorded by the historian: "After this is over, a parcel of live rabbits are turned loose among the crowd, which are pursued by a number of boys, who endeavour to catch them with all the noise they can make *."

"From the time that wrestling became unfashionable, and was rarely practised by persons of opulence, it declined also among the populace, but by slower degrees; and at present is seldom seen except at wakes and fairs, where it still continues to be partially exhibited." P. 63.

(To be continued.)

LXXXIV. *Tooke's History of Russia.* (Continued from p. 418.)

THE IMPERIAL PALACE.

"THE winter-palace of the sovereign is pleasantly situated on the right hand bank of the Neva, on the spot where formerly stood the house of Count Apraxin, which he made a present of to the crown, and was used as a palace. But in 1754, the Empress Elizabeth caused it to be pulled down, and the present prodigious structure to be raised in its stead; which was not finished till 1762, the year in which that Empress died. It forms a long quadrangle; each of its fronts, to the Neva and to the town, being 450 English feet in length, and the sides of its extremities 350 feet. It has a very lofty basement, on it the principal story, and above that an entresol. The whole height amounts to seventy feet. The roof is low; but on the part which contains the chapel rises a cupola with a cross, and on the parapet are statues and other ornaments. The main front towards the city is provided with a magnificent portal, and two large entrances under spacious balconies, one of which is converted into a room, from whence on great holidays the Imperial family show themselves to

the populace. The lower story is decorated on all sides with columns of the Ionic order, and the upper with Corinthian. The front towards the Neva has but one entrance, in the middle between the two extremities which here project forward, like short wings. The end towards the admiralty was inhabited by the Grand Duke Paul Petrovitch. The basement story is vaulted with two large rows of pillars on each side, having small apartments for the court attendants, guards, kitchens, &c. These vaulted avenues, which resemble the aisles of a cathedral, are so dark in some places, as to require lamps during the day, and consequently are of a gloomy aspect. The entresol is filled with people belonging to the court, either of the Empress or of the Grand Duke.

"The inside of the palace contains several particulars worthy of observation: the large magnificent marble flight of stairs, on the Neva side, which is only ascended by ambassadors and grandes on their first solemn audience: the chapel, with its sumptuous paintings and sacred vestments. The church-service here is amazingly grand, and the solemnity of it much heightened by the exquisite singers that compose the choir. The masquerade rooms are remarkably brilliant, especially when lighted up on such occasions. The chamber of audience, with the throne of ancient splendour. The cabinet, containing the insignia of the Empire, is the most valuable collection of jewels to be seen in Europe. These insignia are placed on a table in the midst of the room, under a large glass bell, which admits of their being thoroughly viewed on all sides. The great crown of gold is faced with red velvet, almost entirely covered with various kinds of precious stones, some of them of great magnitude; particularly at top is an uncommonly large ruby. The little crown which is seen on the head of the monarch on the great court festivals, is about five inches in diameter, and is esteemed of great value, from the number of large brilliants with which it is beset. The knob of the sceptre is the famous diamond which her late Majesty purchased of Safratz the Greek, in 1774, for 450,000 rubles, and a life-

* "Hentzner's Itinerary, first published A.D. 1598. I have followed Lord Oxford's translation, from the edition at Strawberry Hill, p. 36."

annuity of 100,000 rubles. It weighs 194 carats: but having been cut in India, where it served for the eye of an idol, it is not so perfectly shaped as it might have been done by an European workman. The mound and its golden crois are covered to more than half their surface with precious stones of various hues. Round the walls of this apartment are glass cases, like those in toyshops, full of diamond ornaments, stars of the several orders of knighthood, watches, and watch-chains, rings, epaulets, sword-hilts, snuff-boxes, etuis, &c. from whence the sovereign selects the presents she is pleased to make.

" The apartments of the Empress, the Grand Duke, and the Imperial family, are fitted up with the utmost magnificence and taste. The rest of the rooms are partly put to no use, though many of them are highly decorated in the old style of grandeur.

" The Hermitage bears that name, as devoted to the private recreations of the monarch, and is also called the Gallery, on account of its forming part of the suite of the Imperial collection of pictures. The Hermitage is erected at the eastern extremity of the palace, in the same line with it on the bank of the Neva, reaching to the canal which connects that river with the Moika. This spacious building is joined to the palace by a covered way, leading from the middle story, so that her Majesty could commodiously walk from her apartments into the Hermitage, which, together with the whole length of the palace, is nearly half an English mile. The eastern part of this great square, towards the Million, was inhabited by the late Prince Potemkin.

" Besides these united palaces and their several appurtenances, there is still beyond the Hermitage, but contiguous to it, the old Imperial winter palace, built by Peter the Great, and in which he and his Catharine resided to the end of their days. It has long been converted into a private theatre for operas, and apartments for the Italian performers, singers, dancers, and musicians, with their wardrobes and other conveniences. At the end of the Hermitage, the Empress has lately built a Raphael's gallery, with copies of all the paintings, of the same dimensions and style with that in Italy.

" The picture-gallery employs a

considerable suite of rooms. By a catalogue taken in 1774, the paintings then amounted to 2080, having among them originals by the pencils of Raphael, Rubens, Vandyk, Rembrandt, Le Brun, Holbein, Corregio, Caracci, Jordano, Pefne, Dietrick, and other celebrated painters of the Dutch, Italian, and German schools. In this great collection the Houghton gallery makes, as to number, but an inconsiderable figure. By the frequent purchases made by the late Empress, the pictures are now so numerous that they cannot all be hung up. They may at present safely be computed at upwards of 4000; besides the miniatures and enamels, which are at least 200 in number.

" The sovereign's private library contains about 2000 volumes; and in other apartments are the libraries of Voltaire and Diderot, which together may amount to 40,000 volumes. The collection of copper-plate engravings may be stated at 20,000.

" The cabinet of medals and coins, contains in both kinds about 16,000. The collection of gems, in which is comprised that of the Duke of Orleans and those of Natter, including such as are of Tassie's manufacture, and some compositions from Italy, exceeds 10,000, not to mention great numbers of impressions in gypsum.

" A choice collection of natural history, from all the three kingdoms of nature, especially from the mineral, which the Empress bought in 1786, of that famous naturalist, Professor Pallas, was not yet entirely arranged in 1791. Beside this, in an apartment adjoining, is a great collection of natural curiosities.

" The chamber of confidence is a real solitude. The company seat themselves at a confidential table, which they find ready prepared, without servants, and therefore eat and converse without restraint. After the first course, at a signal given, the table sinks through the floor, which closes of itself. At another signal the table rises with the second course. Each particular plate likewise descends through the table, which rises again with whatever has been ordered by a written paper upon it. The mechanism of this contrivance is extremely simple; lines running over pulleys; and a wheel winding it up and down.

" Another

" Another room contains a lathe for turning, with several pieces of turnery by Peter the Great, and others by the hand of Catharine II. In another apartment are models of various buildings and machines, and numberless ingenious contrivances of art: the minster at Strasburg in mother of pearl; a tower, with a winding staircase in ivory, and a multitude of others.

" The *hortus pensilis*, on a level with the grand apartments, six fathoms above the ground. In this are gravel walks, graft-plots, parterres of flowers, rows of orange-trees, birch, pines, lime-trees, and shrubs of various kinds, exactly as in other pleasure-gardens; with bowers and arbours all around it. The whole is heated in the winter by means of flues conveyed along the vaults beneath. Over the garden is a wire net, so fine as scarcely to be perceptible. Here are all kinds of singing-birds, foreign as well as native, flying about from tree to tree, as in the woods from whence they are brought, picking up the proper food distributed for them, making their nests, or warbling among the branches."

Vol. i. p. 442.

NICON, THE METROPOLITAN, DEPOSED BY THE TZAR ALEXEY—THE PATRIARCHATE ABOLISHED BY PETER THE GREAT.

" IN regard to religion, Peter unquestionably had clearer perceptions than any of his predecessors on the throne of the Tzars. His good natural understanding, his sound judgment, probably too his travels, and his intercourse with foreigners, and with men of all ranks, and of the different creeds, taught him very soon to distinguish religion from church rites; to discriminate between the lessons of Christ and the doctrines of the schools; and to form just ideas of what constitutes the true essence and spirit of religion*. It had struck him forcibly, while yet

very young, that ecclesiastical authority could have no good political tendency, unless it were entirely subordinate to the temporal power. The Russian prelates, especially the patriarchs at Mosco, shared with the Tzars the supreme command. The Patriarch Philaretus was held in the highest veneration by Tzar Mikhaila his son, and, though not in name, was actually co-sovereign. The succeeding patriarchs were never by their own consent of less consideration than Philaretus. This was particularly the case with Nicon, Patriarch of Russia under Alexey (from 1652 to 1658). Undoubtedly he had the principal share in quelling the Novgorodian insurrection, and his conduct on that occasion was highly laudable. But as soon as the title of Patriarch was conferred upon him; he wanted to be something more than primate of the clergy, he required that his voice should be of greater weight in matters of government than that of others; and, on finding that his advice was not followed in all things, he voluntarily resigned the patriarchate, and retired into a monastery which he had previously built. But even here he would not be quiet; by his spiritual pride he offended Tzar Alexey, and was continually affronting the great men of the court, till at length he was formally deposed from the patriarchate, and degraded to what he had originally been, a simple monk [1666]. Nicon was the author of much good while Archbishop of Novgorod; and he afterwards attempted some reforms in regard to devotional books, introduced the Greek church music, hitherto only used in Kief, into the rest of Russia; and thus, as chief religious teacher of the Empire, showed himself active for the improvement of what is called divine service; he even frequently delivered sermons (at that time a practice extremely rare), and, as he was a very eloquent man, and highly reverenced by the people, effected much good.

* " As an instance of his firmness of mind, the following anecdote is related. Once as he lay very sick, it was represented to him, that he should now, according to the practice of the former Tzars, grant a free pardon to several capital delinquents, in order by this pious act to obtain from God the speedier reformation of his health. Instead of following this superstitious advice, he commanded these culprits to be immediately brought to trial, and if they were found guilty, to lose no time in executing sentence upon them, as he hoped that this would be more agreeable to God than the letting such rascals loose again upon the world."

3 Q. 2

" But

" But Nikon's history throughout was a very important example to sovereigns of what an inordinate spiritual power may lead to, and a convincing proof that the patriarchs might very easily become rivals of the authority due only to the Tzar *. Peter, therefore, from this example, deduced the maxim, that it would certainly be better not to leave any longer the supreme spiritual power in the hands of a single person, lest, by insensible degrees, a pope might grow up in Russia, sharing the sovereignty with the monarch, or even set him at defiance and directly oppose him. It was necessary for him, however, to proceed slowly and warily in the execution of his plan: so, therefore, he did, and in that particular likewise showed himself, though an enterprising, yet a fagacious monarch, knowing how to prepare his people for the regulations he was meditating to introduce. The Patriarch Adrian had died in 1700; and, though Peter was even then already firmly resolved not to confer that dignity again, yet he did not proceed immediately to put his resolution in force. He excused himself for the present, from the multiplicity of busines brought on him by the war, as not being able to attend with proper earnestness to so important a matter as the appointment of a person to fill the patriarchal throne. Having thus gained time, he now gradually brought on the intended alteration. He began by constituting an administrator of the patriarchal functions, with power, however, of deciding in very indifferent matters alone, to consult on more important affairs with other bishops, and ultimately to refer every thing to the determination of the Tzar. Thus the nation was by little and little accustomed to live without a patriarch. And when at length he thought it now time to be able to go through with his alteration, he proclaimed in January 1721, that the patriarchal dignity was abolished, and in its stead, for the future, the government of the church was to be conducted by a spiritual confisitory, com-

posed of several members. This confisitory, at the sittings whereof Peter himself frequently attended, obtained the title of 'The Holy Directing Synod,' was immediately under the Tzar, who appointed the members of it. In this manner Peter recovered to the sovereigns of Russia the supremacy of the church, and made his people independent on the despotism of the spiritual power; and all this was effected by Peter, who owed nothing to others for the forming of his mind, at a time when Lewis XIV. was entirely governed by his clergy, and suffered a great part of his subjects to be hunted out of the country on account of religion, a proceeding not less impolitic than unjust, and therefore contrary to religion. Peter also determined to reform the monasteries, to diminish the number of monks and nuns, and so render the religious houses less hurtful to population, and at the same time to assign useful employments to their inhabitants, of whom he expressly says, in his decree, that the majority are lazy drones. All those monks who entered the convent not to study there, and hereafter to become bishops (as in Russia the offices of the superior clergy are filled by regulars), were now to employ themselves in nursing and waiting on the poor as well as disbanded soldiers, who, for that purpose, were to be distributed among the monasteries. The nuns were to keep schools for poor girls, to teach them female works, and likewise to admit and succour the poor of their own sex. Unfortunately, however, these regulations of Peter, in regard to religious houses of all denominations, produced but little effect, as he died the same year in which he decreed them." *Vol. II.*
p. 127.

PETER THE GREAT AN ACTIVE PATRON OF THE MECHANICAL ARTS.

" ARTS and sciences in Russia were still in their infancy previous to the reign of Peter. That prince in these likewise began to do something for his

* " To what length the patriarchs had extended their power, may be judged of by this among other circumstances, that, on Palm Sunday, when a procession was held, the Tzar not only went on foot, while the Patriarch rode, but was even obliged to lead the horse of the spiritual cavalier by the bridle. Can it be a question, whether, at least on that day, the Patriarch was not greater than the Sovereign in the eyes of the populace?"

country, and to lay the foundation in this respect to farther improvement. He endowed at Petersburg a seminary for future navigators, as well as a mathematical school at Mosco. He caused some public libraries to be set up, instituted a museum at St. Petersburg, for which he collected productions of nature and art himself on his travels, fetched other collections from abroad, and at the same time made it a repository for all kinds of natural products found in the Russian Empire. This institution he devoted to the nation at large. Every one had free entrance here, and by the contemplation of nature, or the works of human industry, might acquire juster conceptions and an encouragement to activity. He provided a Russian printing-office, caused useful books to be translated from foreign languages into Russ, and, by means of the press, dispersed them among his people. The Academy of Sciences at St. Petersburg, founded by him, and which has always contributed in an uncommon degree to extend the knowledge of Russia among foreigners as well as natives, was enjoined by his plan to write learned books, afterwards to translate them into the vulgar tongue, that they might be put into the hands of the common people, particularly of the youth. The observatory which he had inspected at Paris on his second journey through a part of Europe, raised in him a wish to have a like beneficial establishment; and presently after his return an observatory was built at St. Petersburg. He himself took great pains to acquaint himself with the course of the heavenly bodies, and when he had acquired some knowledge of astronomy, frequently conversed on it with the great men of his court, in order to expand their ideas a little; telling them, for instance, that an eclipse of the sun or the moon was an appearance altogether as natural as rain or sunshine, of which it was then as difficult to persuade the Russians, as it has, even more recently, been found to convince the natives in other countries. Peter, who was ever ready as much as possible to combat and destroy superstition, ordered it to be publicly announced, in 1715, that an eclipse of the sun would happen on such a day, in order to make it apparent that this event was not ominous of any disaster, or an awful menace of

divine judgments. As the observatory of St. Petersburg was a fruit of his travels, he had likewise, on his first and second journey, procured artists and men of letters in England, Holland, Germany, and France, whom he sent into his empire on terms very agreeable to them, that they might contribute by their writings, or by the exercise of their arts, and by instruction imparted to the young Russians, to the improvement of the nation. For the same reason youths were selected and sent to travel at his expence in foreign countries. And as, by means of his good natural understanding, he very soon acquired a knowledge of several arts and sciences, he prescribed to the young persons whom he had sent abroad, what they were particularly to study, examined them himself on their return, observed whether they had properly employed their opportunities of learning, or had passed the time in idleness; the expert he put into places that suited their attainments, encouraged and promoted them, and punished the unimproved by taking no farther notice of them, or by assigning to them posts in which they could get neither honour nor profit. For the more general cultivation of the Russians, it were indeed to be wished that their famous sovereign Peter had bestowed greater care on the first education, on the elementary institution of the youth in schools. Though both his father and his brother had already done something in this respect by erecting some schools and institutions for the information of youth; yet it was but a very small beginning. On the whole, most of the schools in Russia, even in the time of Peter, were upon a very miserable footing; and Peter, who gave himself so much concern on a variety of objects, did here far less than could have been wished, and than he perhaps would have done if he had attained to a greater age. Under him, indeed, it must be owned, though without his concurrence, and only by accident, some scattered rays of reason and moral light pierced even to the inclement regions of Siberia: as the Swedish prisoners who were sent thither by Peter, and particularly the officers, erected schools in those frozen climes, and instructed the natives in many useful branches of knowledge. Even these unfortunate persons, who did

did not obtain permission to return to Sweden till the peace of Nystadt, contributed, therefore, in some measure, to drive ignorance out of Russia.

" Manufactures, trades, mechanical arts, businesses, and objects of industry, of all kinds, were the principal aim of Peter's active mind; and doubtless in these respects he cultivated his nation greatly more, and advanced it higher than it had been before. His having himself acquired a knowledge of the generality of matters of that nature, his having always been, while on his travels, an inquisitive and attentive observer of every thing that related to them, not unfrequently himself putting a hand to the work *, and concerning himself in general about the minutest trifles, as well as about the greater parts and the whole, must unquestionably have had a vast influence on the progress of his people, among whom it was his endeavour to transplant whatever was good and useful among foreigners.

" And, while a traveller, he observed, examined, and informed himself thoroughly of every thing that fell under his notice, in order to employ and to apply what he had seen for the benefit of his empire †; he also sent young Russians into foreign countries to study and follow the art of ship-building, and other useful occupations, that at their return they might teach others; and for the same purpose took into his pay many foreigners, emigrant French-

men, Scotchmen, and Germans, among whom were several very able men. He put the manufactory of small arms upon an excellent footing, set up forges for anchors, and built a number of mills, instituted manufactories for linen, fail-cloth, cordage, silk, and woollen stuffs, built in the neighbourhood of St. Petersburg a multitude of brick and tile kilns; and acting differently from Charles XII. who conquered Poland without deriving from it any benefit to Sweden, nay, which was indeed injured by it, caused sheep and shepherds to come from that country, for the sake of improving the breed of sheep in Russia. He also zealously promoted inquiries into the manner of exploring and working mines, particularly in Siberia; and, in order to render it more methodical and regular, constituted a peculiar mineral college, to which he gave the inspection over the works to be carried on. He greatly improved the docks and yards at Archangel, and formed new ones at Petersburg and Voronetch. He took delight in assisting such persons as were inclined to undertake manufactories and workshops, by advancing them money, and granting them privileges. Thus industry and trade were continually gaining by him in an extraordinary degree; and what I remarked above of the Swedish prisoners in Siberia, that they sowed the seeds of some improvement even in that part of the Russian Empire, is applicable also in a particular manner,

* " It is well known that both in Holland and in England he not only caused himself to be shown what was most material in the dockyards, but even worked at the several businesses with his own hands. According to our countryman, Captain Perry, whom Peter took with him from London to Russia as an engineer, there was no kind of work, from the casting of cannons to the making of ropes, that furnished any thing to ship-building, in which Peter had not acquired the clearest notion of every particular, and had even set his hand to work at. Even in Russia he executed something or other in every workshop that he visited; one while hammering iron as a smith, at another employed as a carpenter; he once even built a whole wall with bricks: but his favourite business was that of a shipwright."

† " He even sent a model of a coffin to Russia. In general, nothing appeared to him so insignificant as that he did not vouchsafe it his attention, as soon as he thought that any benefit might arise out of it to his country. Thus, shortly before the conclusion of the Swedish war, he had brush-makers, basket-makers, even butter-women with butter-firkins, nay rat-catchers and Dutch cats, brought to Russia. He had heard that the Dutch cats were famous for preventing the mischief occasioned by mice and rats in ships and houses. So attentive was he to the minutest objects, that, perceiving the Russian boors made better mat-shoes than the Finnish peasants in the neighbourhood of St. Petersburg, he distributed Russian mat-shoemakers in Finland, that they might communicate their art to the Finns."

in regard to useful handicrafts. Even the Swedish officers employed themselves here, partly for want of other means of support, in a variety of mechanical arts and trades. In their distressful situation, being reduced to the necessity of applying themselves to consider and to imitate what they had seen in Sweden and other countries, they became the teachers of the inhabitants of the country, disseminated their knowledge among them, and instructed them in several profitable employments." *Vol. ii. p. 135.*

**SOCIETY—ALTERATIONS IN DRESS,
&c.**

"SOCIETY was a thing almost unknown to the manners then prevalent in the Russian nation. Peter accomplished much likewise in this respect, convinced as he was that intercourse and society could not be inefficient in the cultivation of a people, but must contribute to a greater expansion of the faculties, to bring truths, opinions, judgments, and ideas into more rapid circulation; and that therefore a sociable people would be more sensible than an unsociable. In order, therefore, to set the fashion, as he knew that the example of the higher orders invites the lower ranks to imitation, set on foot [1716] societies under the name of assemblies, and even gave out a particular set of rules for them. They were kept three times a week in the houses of the principal persons of quality in rotation. Peter and Catharine frequented them in person; but all formality and constraint were banished. All persons of rank, noblemen, superior officers, respectable merchants, ship-builders, and other people of condition, had free admission with their wives and children. That ladies too should take part in such companies was a thing as yet unheard of in Russia. Hitherto even married women, only on certain great holidays, and in company with their husbands, could venture to visit their nearest relations. They lived retired in the back part of the house, and were very much confined. Unmarried ladies were kept in

still greater constraint. These severities Peter did his utmost to remove, by declaring that women ought not to be excluded from the comforts of social intercourse; and they testified their gratitude to him for it. He wanted to alter the Asiatic dress of the Russians, and to introduce that generally worn in the other parts of Europe. He therefore made it one of the rules to be observed in the forementioned assemblies, that every one must appear in the light modern dress; and the female sex, who had obtained more liberty by Peter's means, carefully and with cheerfulness adhered to this rule. It was far more difficult to bring the men to an alteration in their dress, which, however, in Peter's opinion, might much contribute to lessen the hatred entertained by his countrymen against foreigners. He commanded all his subjects (the clergy, boors, Tartars, Kalmucks, and tribes of their class excepted) to shave their beards; an order, to which violent opposition was made. For enforcing this regulation he laid a tax on long beards, and great numbers submitted to pay it rather than part with their beard, which was universally held to be an ornament to the person. Superstitious Russians even thought it an outward characteristic of the orthodox faith, (for in what trifles has not orthodoxy been made to consist?) and, if too poor, or too parimonious, to pay the tax for retaining the beard, they religiously preserved the beard shorn off, and had it deposited in the coffin with them on their decease, that they might present it to St. Nicholas, on his refusing to admit them, as beardless Christians, into the kingdom of heaven. Peter wanted likewise to effect an alteration in the dress of the men. Accordingly, whoever was in his service must appear in clothes of a foreign cut; and under all the gates of the town, patterns of these clothes were even hung up*.

"Peter also resolved to give his people a taste for the drama. Before this time, at Kief and Mosco, spiritual plays were performed occasionally in the monasteries. Under his patronage a national theatre was formed at Mosco,

* "Whose coat was not agreeable to this pattern must pay a fine, or submit to have so much of it cut off as exceeded the standard. Many likewise had their beards cut off in the streets. In regard to dress, the clergy, boors, &c. were also excepted."

which,

which, however, it must be owned, was bad enough. More was done in this matter by his female successors.

" In the times anterior to Peter it was usual for parents to conclude marriages for their children; and the young people never saw one another till they were to be betrothed; a custom which was certainly attended with many inconveniences. Peter made a law, that every young couple should frequent one another for six weeks at least previous to the betrothing.

" In order to discredit, in the eyes of his people, the old usages, many of which were indeed highly ridiculous, Peter had recourse to various methods. At times he appointed an entertainment, at which every thing was to proceed on the old footing, in which his design was to display the difference between the ancient and modern manners, and to show the superiority of the latter in a way irresistibly striking. Thus, for example, he once celebrated the nuptials of one of his court-fools in a most magnificent manner; but entirely in the style of the sixteenth century. The guests were obliged to appear in the dress after the fashion of that time. No fire was lighted, though the weather was intensely cold; because it was an old superstitious notion, that the kindling of a fire on the wedding-day was unlucky. The old Russians were fond of mead and brandy, but drank no wine;—this particular was therefore punctually observed.—The guests showed themselves highly discontented at it. ' This was exactly the custom with our forefathers,' Peter answered them smiling; ' and surely old customs are preferable to new ones! ' thus jeeringly giving them a good lesson. It was then usual to keep fools for the diversion of the court; and, indeed, till very lately the nobility always had one about the house: nor is the practice yet entirely left off in the country. The court-fools used frequently to make themselves merry with the old fashions, customs, and manners, mimicking many of the stiff obstinate sticklers for the antiquated style; and, on their complaining to Peter of the affront, he generally answered them: They are fools, what can be done with them?

" From what has been said, it plainly appears that Peter in many respects gave a new turn to the manner of think-

ing and acting of the Russian nation. I shall only subjoin a few observations. The extraordinary and indefatigable activity of this monarch: one while undertaking a siege at a distance from his empire, or fighting at the head of his army, then suddenly appearing in the residence, and frequenting the fittings of the senate, or presenting himself in the courts of justice, or consulting with the clergy on ecclesiastical reforms, or selecting ingenious persons to send out on travels; now undertaking a journey himself; working in foreign countries in the dockyards and workshops; becoming an attentive scholar in the studies of literary men, at Amsterdam, with the naturalist Ruyfch, or, as at Paris, visiting an academy of sciences; then re-appearing in his empire, and there making dispositions for establishing a manufactory; in one place causing a canal to be dug, in another ordering ships to be built; to-day publishing an ordinance relating to processes in the courts, to-morrow issuing a table of precedence; one moment severely punishing a judge who had suffered himself to be corrupted, the next rewarding another for services performed to the country; now holding a triumphal entry, then passing the whole day in the museum of the works of nature and art of his own institution, in the contemplation of nature, and the great performances of human industry and contrivance:—in short, that in all his undertakings for the good of his country he was obliged to work and act himself, as he was in want of able persons to whom he should need only to trace out a plan, and then could leave the execution to their care—such a vast activity must surely have roused in some degree the Russians, who were apt to let their faculties lie dormant, from their inaction, animate them to the employment of their abilities, and teach them to consider industry as a good and useful property."—
P. 150.

(To be continued.)

LXXXV. A general Account of all the Rivers of Note in Great Britain; with their several Courses, their peculiar Characters, the Countries through which they flow, and the entire Sea-coast of our Island; concluding

cluding with a minute Description of the Thames, and its auxiliary Streams. By HENRY SKRINE, Esq. L. L. B. of Warley, in Somersetshire, Author of "Three successive Tours in the North of England and Scotland, in 1795," and "Two successive Tours in South and North Wales, in 1799." 8vo. pp. 412. 10s. 6d. *Elmby.*

rather inclined to the south-east, but beneath Darlington it turns abruptly to the north-east, and falls into the sea below Stockton in Durham, which may be called its port.

"The mountains, from which the Tees derives its origin, are gigantic, and Teesdale presents a long winding stripe of fertility, surrounded by some of the wildest districts in the kingdom. This extraordinary valley is more than thirty miles in length, well sprinkled with villages, with the little town of Middleton near its centre, and Barnard Castle at its eastern extremity. The river itself assimilates throughout with its external attendants, of rocks, moors, and mountains, being broad, shallow, and rapid, frequently ravaging the valley with its inundations, and precipitating itself in vast cataracts. It is here crossed by an extraordinary foot bridge suspended by iron chains, after which, buried within deep rocks, and steep wooded banks, it almost encircles the ancient town of Barnard Castle, dashing through its long bridge beneath the walls of its castle; afterwards it enters a deep dell beneath the Abbey of Egglestone, tearing its way with rapidity through the rich domain of Rokeby, below which it receives the Greta from Yorkshire, and another small stream from the moors of Durham, forming a fine feature in the highly ornamented territory which surrounds the majestic walls and towers of Raby Castle, and the elegantly-disposed grounds of Mr. Wane at Sellaby. The Tees still preserves its character, as it divides Durham from Yorkshire for a great distance, presenting a striking and romantic object, from whichever side it is viewed. The flourishing town of Darlington, with its high spire, lies a few miles above its northern bank in Durham; and Stockton, in the same county, exhibits a street, with a large market-house in its centre, which for width and regularity is surpassed by no country town in England. The Tees is here crossed by a magnificent stone bridge, and being now affected by the tide, admits ships of considerable burthen.

"The Weare finds its source in the same wild range of moors which produce the Tees, but considerably to the north of that river; its course is almost parallel with it, bearing at first to the south-east, and at *Bishops Auckland*

tunring

PLATES.

FRONTISPICE—*Seventeen Maps of the Courses of Rivers.*

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EXTRACTS.

THE TEES AND THE WEARE.

"THE Tees rises in those vast moors which separate Yorkshire from Durham, Cumberland, Westmoreland, and Northumberland. Its course is at first

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turning to the north-east; after nearly surrounding the city of Durham, it flows northward to Chester le Street, and then inclines a little towards the east, to reach its port of Sunderland.

"The Weare may be called a miniature of the Tees, much resembling that river in character, though greatly its inferior in width and rapidity. Weare-dale is (like Tees-dale) a very wild and romantic district, yet pleasantly interspersed with villages, headed by the market town of Wolsingham. Emerging from these recesses, the Weare flows boldly beneath the town of Bishops Auckland, and below the park of that princely territory, which many successive bishops of Durham have contributed to embellish as the principal residence of that rich and powerful see. The present bishop, enabled by a fortune superior to most of his predecessors, has made considerable improvements and additions, with taste and liberality; which appear to great advantage, in descending from the lodges opening from the Durham road, where the venerable pile of the Gothic chapel exalts itself above the numerous more modern buildings, fronted by an extensive portico in an appropriate taste. The Weare buries its winding course in deep dales, till it is arrested by the high circular hill which is crowned by the majestic cathedral and stately castle of Durham, from whence the city descends in steep winding streets to its three bridges, which terminate in long suburbs. A more singular position for the capital of a county can hardly be imagined, and the effect of these vast objects, from their elevated situation, is wonderfully striking; but the streets are mostly narrow, steep, and inconvenient. Almost the whole summit is covered by the cathedral and its two cloisters, one of which contains the superb residences of the dean and chapter, the other being appropriated to the bishop. The county hall is within his great precincts, and the majestic towers of his almost regal castle, overhang the Weare proudly from the summit of a perpendicular rock. It contains many noble apartments, and would make a distinguished figure, were the same taste and spirit which has adorned Bishops Auckland so successfully, extended to this majestic pile; but of late (though kept in sufficient repair) it has been

rarely inhabited, except on public occasions, by its prince palatine. The steep and wooded banks of the Weare present some very pleasant walks, as it encompasses Durham, and exhibit much romantic scenery about Mr. Carr's neighbouring seat at Cocken.

"The stately pile of Lumley Castle afterwards overlooks it, and its exit to the sea, near the crowded port of Sunderland, is graced with an iron bridge, matchless in its design and architecture, beneath which vessels in full sail may pass." P. 75.

THE TAY

"IS one of the most considerable and beautiful rivers in our island, traversing the whole great county of Perth, amidst the richest districts of the middle range of Scotland, and forming itself the principal ornament to some of the most romantic tracts in nature. Its source is in one of the highest and wildest eminences in the western Highlands, from whence it rushes with a singularly characteristic rapidity, through the gloomy hollow of Glendochart, or the Vale of Affliction, where it forms a small lake, with a bare island and a castle, which might serve for the abode of melancholy. The pleasant little town of Killin is delightfully situated, some miles lower, on a neck of land between the two points, where the placid Lochy and the rapid Tay, strongly contrasting each other in character, form the great expanse of water called Loch Tay. Loft mountains surround this charming lake, encircling a wooded, populous, and well-cultivated district; two good roads pervade the whole, on eminences overhanging each side of the water, and command every species of the sublime and beautiful in landscape. These scenes are varied happily by the three great turns of Loch Tay, the last of which divides all the ornamented territory of Taymouth, whose groves sweep the whole horizon, stretching across the plain at the bottom of the lake from the heads of two opposite mountains, and interspersed with many conspicuous buildings. The Tay makes its exit from the lake through the handsome stone bridge of Kenmore, the church of which village stands finely exalted on an eminence looking directly down Loch Tay.

"This

"This river, now greatly increased by the junction of the Lioni from its pleasant dale, but still preserving all its original rapidity, rolls in majestic state between the rich groves of Taymouth, and at Aberfeldie is crossed by a large stone bridge, built by General Wade, when the military roads were formed, and graced with a very classic Latin inscription. The Tummel, lately enlarged by the waters of the Carrie tumbling from the highly improved district of the Blair of Athol, through the hollow pass of Killiecrankie, meets the Tay below the romantic spot of Falkally, which after passing through a finely pastured and well timbered vale to Dunkeld, the venerable remains of whose abbey present a fine object close to the Tay, and in the midst of the Duke of Athol's numerous plantations. High obstructing hills direct its winding course in its exit from the Highlands beneath the scanty remains of the celebrated wood of Birnam, from whence the ruined fortress of Dunfinane is seen at a considerable distance across the plain.

"The Tay here makes a considerable circuit to meet the Ifla from Angus, and then descending beneath the ancient palace of Scone, to the fine city of Perth, passes under the arches of its noble bridge, and sweeps in a bold semicircle round the rock of Kinoul, opposite to the hill of Moncrieffe, where the Roman legions, struck with astonishment at the grandeur of the scene before them, suddenly halted, and cried 'Ecce Tiberim.' The Earne descends a little below this spot from Crieff, and beneath the elevated pile of Drummond Castle, adorns the fertile vale of Straith Earne, through which its course is parallel with the Tay, till the two rivers join near Newburgh. Thus is formed that vast æstuary called the Firth of Tay, at the head of which the important and flourishing port of Dundee spreads over a considerable eminence; this Firth narrows considerably as it approaches its exit, and falls into the sea beneath the walls of Broughty Castle." P. 99.

THE EASTERN COAST OF CAITHNESS
—JOHN A GROAT'S HOUSE.

"ON the coast, between the Fleet and the Brora, is situated the noble, but deserted, Castle of Dunrobin, the ancient seat of the Earls of Sutherland;

beyond the latter, the precipices of the rocky Ord of Caithness impend horribly over a stormy ocean, above which a road is carried far more exalted and tremendous than that of Penmannawr in North Wales. This is the only great pass of the country into Caithness, after which the road divides into two branches, one pursuing the coast, and the other penetrating through the heart of that county northward to Thurso. The eastern coast of Caithness, after the pass of the Ord is surmounted, is far less mountainous than that of Sutherland; one small river, called the Wick, descends to it from the north-west, originating in the lake of Watten, and forming a fine bay beneath the port situated on its northern shore, from which it derives its name. Considerably further towards the north, Duncansby Head projects into the sea, marking the north-eastern extremity of our island; advancing towards which, beyond the village of Houna, stands the memorable ferry-house of John a Groat, the *Ultima Thule* of most English travellers, and the last mansion in Great Britain. The coast here is wild, bold, and rocky; the Orkney Islands appear spread out in front across the boisterous Firth of Pentland, and during some weeks of the summer months daylight is never lost to its inhabitants, for which they suffer by an equivalent prolongation of night in the winter, though the prevalence and brightness of the Aurora Borealis usually relieves this evil. The broad bay of Dunnet succeeds, into which the river Thurso descends from the south; the port, which bears also its name, is placed at the mouth of the stream, and separately approached by the road which diverges from the shore a little above the Ord of Caithness.

"Here end all tracks easily practicable to any but the scanty inhabitants of this wild coast, which, indenting the country with deep bays through the remainder of Caithness and Sutherland, terminates towards the north-west in the dangerous promontory of Cape Wrath. It descends then southward, intersected with large salt-water lochs, till the mountainous region of Affynt projects again towards the west, near the extremity of Sutherland. The western coast of Ross-shire is not less wild and barbarous, being penetrated with still deeper arms of the sea, as it

descends by the west to the south; the large island of Lewis appears from thence at a considerable distance in the north-west; and Skye, the principal of the Hebrides or Western Islands, almost cloes in with it, as it approaches the borders of Inverness-shire. The western coast of that great county abounds in similiar features, being little less wild, dreary, and inaccessible; it is also in like manner penetrated with vast arms of the sea to its junction with Argyle-shire. The northern part of that district participates in the same qualities, as it makes a sweep to form the sound of Mull, opposite to the island of that name, and then descends again southward to the straits of Jura, and from thence to the extreme point of the Mull of Cantire, opposite to Ireland, which it doubles, to form a fine bay round the islands of Arran and Bute, beyond which, it reaches the confines of Dumbarton-shire, and the mouth of the Clyde.

" This immense tract of coast, which forms the point of the Mull of Cantire to Cape Wrath, extends northward near four degrees, viz. from almost the 55th to the 59th, is nearly alike savage, dreary, and inaccessible. The interior of the country corresponds with it in wildness, few and uncertain being the roads which penetrate it, and miserable, as well as scanty, its villages, while cultivation is only pursued in a few favoured spots, and that but imperfectly. Destitute of accommodation for travellers, and full of craggy mountains, intersected with lakes and deep morasses; most part of this dismal territory is unknown, except to those who are interested in it either as inhabitants or proprietors. The people, however, are understood to be far more civilized, than the climate and country they live in, together with their poverty and seclusion from the world, would warrant; ministers of the Scotch kirk being resident with decent appointments in most of the villages, and medical assistants of sufficient skill and character, being dispersed over the whole peninsula. The several salt-water lochs, which penetrate this district in every direction, from the northern and the western coasts, open an immense field for the herring fishery, which in some parts is pursued with great assiduity, and in most forms nearly the whole occupation of its in-

habitants, providing also their only means of sustenance. Mines are said to abound in this great expanse, and some of these are supposed to be of considerable value, but they are seldom explored on account of the scantiness of its population, and the want of general animation; the mountains of Affynt are described as containing masses of marble, equal to the Parian in whiteness and purity, and the hidden minerals are supposed to be frequent, as well as valuable, in the forests of Dirrymoor, Durness, and Fainish, as well as in the districts of Coygach, Groinard, Gareloch, Applecross, and Kintail. Except some trifling streams which fall into the salt-water lochs, there appears to be a total failure of rivers from the Thurso of Caithness on the northern coast, to the Spean of Inverness-shire on the western; a vast outline, widely differing from the rest of our island, both in this, and most other circumstances.

COMMENCEMENT OF THE BRITISH CHANNEL TO THE LAND'S END.

" THE western coast of England may be said to begin, where the shipping of King Road, at the junction of the Lower Avon with the Severn, properly constitutes that great estuary of the Bristol Channel, a little below the opposite conflux of the Wye from Wales, though some navigators do not allow it that title till it reaches the islands called the Holmes near Cardiff. The Somersetshire shore stretches out at first in the broad plain before described, bordered by marshes, while the undulating range of the Mendip hills, covered with fern and abounding in mines, closes the horizon, as it advances through the country from the borders of Wiltshire, above the pleasant city of Wells with its neat cathedral, towards the great expanse of water below Axbridge.

" Great marshes afterwards spread far into the country, of which the rich level of Sedgmoor is the most considerable, and the coast continues chiefly level till the waving line of the Quantox hills in the south-west opposes the parallel ridge of the Mendip in the north-east, between which the insulated terrace of Powlett, or Polden Hill, exalts itself, traversed beautifully by one of the western roads from Bath to Bridgwater,

Bridgwater. Two great plains are thus formed, through the first of which the Brue descends by the magnificent pile of Glastonbury, whose conic hill, crowned with the tower of its Torr, is visible at a vast distance: the latter expanse comprehends the vale of Taunton Dean, one of the richest in the west of England, between the ranges of its high impending barriers. The Parrett and Thone, united, pass through this territory to form the Bay of Bridgewater, to which that of Minehead succeeds, where the majestic pile of Dunster Castle appears proudly elevated on a high mount above its town. This delightful spot has been much improved by the taste of its owner Mr. Luttrell, with the numerous plantations of whose park many of the neighbouring hills are covered, one of which is marked by a lofty but unfinished tower. This part of the Somersetshire coast, together with that of Devonshire which soon joins it, may be called mountainous, abounding in dark cliffs and rocky hollows, incessantly following each other, of which the valley of Stones, near Linton, is an extraordinary specimen; a few romantic streams (but none of any note) descend through these clefts, and the towns of Ilfracombe and Comb Martin occupy bold positions on the edge of the sea, the former of which (being in Devonshire) is reported to as a bathing-place from the grandeur of its surrounding scenery. The shore of Glamorganshire, Caermarthenshire, and Pembrokeshire, fronts these towns across the Bristol Channel, which is here become almost an open sea; while that of Devonshire deeply indents the country, forming the bays of Barnstaple and Bideford, and terminates in the bold point of Hartland, in front of Lundy Island, and a little beyond the singular village of Clovelly, which descends in precipitous stages through a rocky hollow to the sea. The Devonshire coast now inclines to the south, soon uniting with that of Cornwall, bounding there the rich and level district of Stratton; after which, high hills advance again before Camelford, enclosing the plain and villages of Boscastle and Boscastle, where the fragments of Tintagel Castle occupy a cliff which stretches out far into the sea, exhibiting the curious, though imperfect, remains of our British King Arthur's palace. The coast

turns more and more westward from the south, after it has formed the bay and harbour of Padstow at the mouth of the Camel, being indented at last by the semicircular bay of St. Ives, at the extremity of the broad basin formed by the Hayle. Thus is the extreme western point of Cornwall almost insulated, in the same manner with the northern peninsula of Scotland, the two seas advancing towards each other, and large inland streams dividing the country so as almost to join them. The little port of St. Ives graces its bay, after which, the coast descends in a south-west direction till it makes its grand and final compass by the south towards the east, round the Land's End, enclosing a naked tract of country, where the melancholy villages of Senan and St. Buryen exhibit the last poor habitations of England to the Atlantic ocean, whose waves, dashing against the black rocks which rise in piles around this dreary peninsula, roll afterwards with uninterrupted force towards the continent of America.

"The islands of Scilly, so dangerous to the navigation of this sea and the entrance of the English Channel, are visible from the point of the Land's End, where a rock at a small distance from the shore is furnished with a light-house, of a very curious construction, for the direction of mariners. After compassing this extraordinary point, the Cornish shore advances southward, with some swells to the east, and presently expands itself into the capacious bay of St. Michael, in the centre of which rises a singular insulated rock, crowned with the striking remains of an abbey, which was formerly dedicated to that saint. Sir John St. Aubyn, the proprietor, has converted this into a temporary dwelling, adding where it was necessary to make the pile habitable, and uniting the ancient style of building with the modern very judiciously. St. Michael's Abbey thus presents a singular mansion, highly exalted on a stupendous cliff, curiously overhanging the sea in perpendicular rocks, and commanding in great perfection the strong features of its appropriate bay. These are not less bold than the rest of the Cornish coast, but they are happily intermixed with a very interesting display of cultivation, pastures, woods, and villages, among which the handsome town of Penzance overpreads.

overspreads an eminence on the west above the sea, backed by some fine groves; and the little port of Merazion, or Market Jew, occupies the centre of the bay in the north, while the Lizard Point closes the view towards the south-east at a considerable distance. Thus is this extraordinary building of St. Michael's Abbey situated, being approachable at low water from Merazion only by land, but completely insulated by every flow of the tide; it is also very difficult of access from the rugged and winding flight of steps by which alone its rock can be surmounted." *P. 252.*

LXXXVI. The Cambrian Itinerary; or Welsh Tourist: containing an historical and topographical Description of the Antiquities and Beauties of Wales. Wherein are minutely and separately described, according to their geographical and modern Divisions, all the different Counties, Towns, Villages, Hamlets, Mountains, Vales, Agriculture, Manufactures, Rivers, Canals, mineral Waters, Fossils, Antiquities, Caverns, Mines, Monasteries, Castles, Camps, Cronlechs, Cistvaens, Carneddau, &c. &c. Also, the principal Houses of Accommodation, or Inns, in the Country. Likewise a colloquial Vocabulary, in English and Welsh; and an Appendix, containing the Bardic or ancient Welsh Alphabet, indispensably necessary for every Tourist. The Whole illustrated by a new and correct Map of the Principality, including the Roads, Rivers, and Mountains. By THOS. EVANS. 8vo. pp. 384. 10s. 6d. *Hurst.*

EXTRACTS.

CARN, CARNEDDAU, OR CARNEDD,

"**A**RE heaps of stones very common on the Radnorshire mountains, and many other places in Wales. The most perfect that I have seen in this county are near Abbey Cwmhir, and on Gwastedyn Hill, near Rhaiadr-gwy, mentioned by Camden and Gibson. These consist of stones to the amount of thirty or forty cart-loads, thrown down promiscuously to form what is

termed a *carn*. The origin and use of such memorials have often been discussed, and generally admitted to have been sepulchral monuments erected by the Britons in commemoration of their hero or chieftain, who fell in battle, and not what some ingenious gentlemen have denominated Carnedd Lladron, or the Carn-Buttai. For those unaccustomed to see these little memorials of the dead, a more general description may be useful and satisfactory. These heaps are found in various situations and of different dimensions; but the largest does not much exceed sixty feet in diameter, and about seven feet deep in the middle, where the carn is always most protuberant, to conceal the chest, or stone coffin, which is usually found in this part, covered with a large stone. It frequently happens that a circular range of large stones are pitched an end on the outside of the heap, while the stones contained within are piled loosely in circles about the tomb, and the interstices filled up with lesser stones. Some of the carns are covered with earth, almost conical, and approach near the form of a tumulus. In many of these carns the stones bear marks of ignition, being remarkably red and brittle by the action of fire, which appears to have been so vehement in some, that the stones are in a great measure vitrified. To a perfect carn there is always a large stone placed endwise within ten, twenty, thirty, forty, or fifty yards of it; and such as want them at present may be supposed to be deprived of them since their first erection, and converted to other purposes. There is likewise some small distinction to be observed; for instance, the tumulus and carn appearing together, prove the interred to be some ancient chief; while the sepulchres of the commonalty are always found on the hills, where there is a small declivity and hollow to be seen, of an oblong form, with the earth heaped like a small hillock. When these are opened, a stratum of ashes, blackish, or red burnt earth, is discovered; but in digging a little deeper we soon perceive a difference, and come to the native soil. It is very uncommon to travel over a barren hill in Wales, without perceiving a *gwyddfa*, the British for any considerable lapie or fall, or some memorial of the ancient Britons." *P. 63.*

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BUALT—DEATH OF LLEWELYN.

"IN recurring to the Chronicle of Caradoc, we find this place suffered considerably by the Danes in 893, who being persecuted by Alfred, failed to Wales, and after destroying the country about the coast advanced to Bualt, which they likewise demolished. The same fatal consequences happened likewise in 1215; for when Reynold de Bruce peremptorily broke off his alliance with Llewelyn ap Jorworth to make peace with Henry III. the former destroyed all Bualt except the castle. Like most places of importance in former times, this appears to have had a castle for its defence, built by the Bruces or Mortimers; but being out of repair in 1209, Gilbert Earl of Gloucester fortified it for his own use. After this, about 1215, we find it in the possession of Giles de Bruce, bishop of Hereford; but when he formed a conspiracy against Llewelyn ap Gruffydd, the latter came in person to Bualt, and had the castle delivered to himself; however, it reverted again to Reynold Bruce, who was besieged in it by some Welsh barons in 1220, but before it could be taken Henry III. raised the siege.

"About 1256, we find it in the possession of Rhys Fychan, whom Llewelyn ap Gruffydd defeated, and forced out of Bualt; afterwards conferred the same on Meredith ap Rhys, but he was soon dispossessed of it by Roger Mortimer, with whom it continued till 1260, when Llewelyn retook it without opposition, and found within a plentiful magazine. Of the town and castle nothing more is mentioned till the unfortunate event which put a period to the independency of the Welsh, and their royal line of princes, occasioned by the death of Llewelyn ap Gruffydd, who was here basely betrayed by the inhabitants of Bualt, on Wednesday, December the 11th, 1282.—The minute circumstances preceding and following this great event are nowhere recorded, except in the following account preserved by tradition among the inhabitants of this place. Llewelyn had posted his army on a hill near Mochryd, a village about three miles below Bualt, on the south side of the Wye. On the north side of the river, two miles below Bualt, the prince had a house called Aberedw, to which he came for the purpose of conferring

with some chieftains of the country. During his stay there, he was alarmed by the approach of some English troops, who probably had intelligence of his situation. The prince, to extricate himself from the danger that threatened him, caused his horse's shoes to be reversed, to deceive his pursuers, as the snow was on the ground: but this circumstance was made known to the enemy, through the treachery of the smith; and they followed so closely, that Llewelyn had but just time to pass the drawbridge at Bualt, which being drawn up secured his retreat. In the mean time, the English troops posted at Aberedw had information of a ford a little lower down, called Cefn Twm Bach, which they crossed, and by that means came between Llewelyn and his army stationed at Mochryd. The only means of safety that now offered was to secrete himself: but the enemy were so diligent in the pursuit, that the Welsh prince was soon found in a narrow dingle, in which he had concealed himself, three miles north of Bualt, and about five miles from his army; which place, from this event, was called Cwn Llewelyn. After Llewelyn was killed, they cut off his head, and buried him near the spot; and at some subsequent period a farm-house was erected over his grave, which goes by the name of Cefn-y-Bedd, or the Top of Llewelyn's Grave." P. 81.

MERTHYR TYDFIL

"IS situated on the borders of Brecknockshire, thirty miles from Brecon. The spot on which the town stands, and the immediate neighbourhood, was the fortunate purchase of Mr. Crawshay, and cost him only 800*l.* while in ground-rents alone he has at present more than the yearly rent of 1000*l.*

"Unfortunately, the town is situated in a barren district, and supported solely by the iron trade, which the owner deems precarious, therefore is adverse to letting out any more on building leases, being prepossessed with this absurd notion, that if he suffered maloms, to lay stones and mortar on his estate, he would, perhaps, at some distant period, be at the expense and trouble of removing them. This is acting on a very narrow-minded policy indeed; for not the present owner, or many succeeding generations,

generations, will ever see these estates lessened in value, while the neighbouring hills are composed of little else but coal and ore.

" The whole district where these minerals abound extends about eight miles in length, and four in breadth. Two ranges of hills bound this place, with a valley between them, in which stands the town of Merthyr, but very contracted in its extent, by reason of the preceding very unprecedent and unmanly motives, to the great injury of our national improvement and commerce.

" The first person who discovered these mines, and determined to work them, was a Mr. Bacon, who had a lease granted him for ninety-nine years, at the low rent of 200*l.* per annum, which likewise gave him power to extend his works as far as the mines extended in the surrounding counties; but from mismanagement, or some unavoidable cause, he succeeded so ill that the works were soon after entirely stopped. Not long after this failure Mr. Bacon died, when his heirs let one part of this district to Mr. Crawshay before mentioned, for the yearly rents of 5000*l.* Another part of this district is let to Mr. Humfray for 2000*l.* per annum, and a third to Messrs. Lewis and Tate, and the fourth or last to Mr. Hill.

" Each of these gentlemen employ several forges, which in their structure look like the gloomy castles of former times, and give a very romantic appearance to the valley.

" Scarcely any thing can be conceived more awfully grand than the descent on a dark night into the Vale of Merthyr, from any of the surrounding hills, where on a sudden the traveller beholds as it were numberless volcanoes breathing out their undulating pillars of flame and smoke, while the furnaces below emit through every aperture a vivid light, which makes the whole country appear in flames; nor do the immense hammers, the wheels, the rolling-mills, the water-works, uniting together their various sounds, add a little to the novelty and magnificence of the scene. The workmen employed by the different iron-masters are very considerable. Mr. Crawshay alone is said to employ between two and three thousand men, and the other gentlemen an equal pro-

portion; so that the whole population of this town is estimated at ten thousand persons.

" Lately, under the auspices of Mr. Crawshay, an over-shot wheel has been constructed, beyond comparison the largest in the world. It is above fifty feet in diameter, and made entirely of cast-iron, which cost him above 4000*l.* The water that turns it is brought from a stream in the hills about five miles off, on a platform of wood supported chiefly by stone pillars, except in one place, where it crosses a bridge on supporters of wood for the space of about three hundred yards, and elevated eighty feet above the bed of the river, the whole of which forms a very singular and sublime appearance."—
P. 89.

MILFORD HAVEN

" APPEARS like an immense lake, formed by a great advance of the sea into the land, for the space of about ten miles from the south to Pembroke, beyond which the tide comes up, and to Carew Castle. It is sufficiently large and spacious to hold the whole British navy; while the spring tides rise thirty-six feet, and the neap above twenty-six, that ships may be out of this harbour in an hour's time, and in eight or nine hours be over at Ireland or the Land's End, and this with almost any wind, day or night. This haven, after winding in many directions through the interior of Pembrokeshire, becomes united in one great basin, where is now to be found that expensive but unfinished chain of fortifications, which have incurred much ridicule and censure, from its absurd position at the bottom of a deep bay, whose exterior points are left undefended, therefore the importance vanished after this discovery. Yet this vast harbour appears perfectly land-locked on all sides, except towards its mouth, where the shores contracting the channel, and turning abruptly to the south-east, present an aperture that might be well defended by judicious planned fortresses.

" The first attempt to fortify this harbour was made by Queen Elizabeth, early in the year 1588, to protect this part of the kingdom from the threatened Spanish invasion: two forts were then erected, one on each side of the mouth,

mouth of the harbour. They were dug in the cliffs, not far above high-water mark, the ruins of which are still visible, and are called Angle and Dale Blockhouses, from where, tradition says, strong chains were thrown across the entrance of the harbour, a distance of about three hundred yards.

"The next attempt to fortify this place was in 1757, for which an act of Parliament passed, and commissioners appointed, with a grant of 10,000*l.* for carrying on the work; but after a long deliberation another act passed in 1759, to alter and amend the former, by adding engineers to the number of commissioners appointed, with an additional sum of 10,000*l.* in order to erect batteries at Peter Church Point, West Lanyon Point, and Neyland Point. It was also alleged that government had it in contemplation to erect arsenals and dockyards at the latter place, where two seventy-four gun ships were built some time before: but before any thing was completed, it was discovered that both this fort and the intended dockyard were entirely commanded by the hills that overhang on both sides the water, and ultimately admitted that a few men landed anywhere below might, by gaining the hills, take the fort without a possibility of resistance; therefore, after expending 20,000*l.* the works were instantly abandoned!" *P. 142.*

TALIESIN'S BED.

"GWYL Taliesin, or Taliesin's Bed, in the parish of Llanvihangle. It stood

by the high road, about four miles from Aberystwith. Tradition informs us this was the sepulchre of Taliesin-benbeirdd Cymru, who flourished about A.D. 540.

"It seems to have been a sort of cistvaen, four feet long and three broad, composed of four stones, one at each end, and two side stones, the highest nearly a foot above the ground; but no part of this monument is now remaining, some ruthless hand having broken the stones, and converted them afterwards to gate-posts." *P. 122.*

CAPTAIN GAM, THE FLUELIN OF SHAKESPEARE.

"IN this town (Machynllaeth) is shown an old building, constructed of the thin flat stone of the country, where Owen Glyndwr summoned the nobility and gentry of Wales, in 1402. Among the number Sir David Gam, knight, attended*, but not with the same design—his intention being to murder Glyndwr; but fortunately the plot was discovered, and Sir David seized, for which he would have suffered instantaneous death but for the intercession of his best friends, who with difficulty got the sentence changed to confinement, in Machynllaeth, where he continued some time, till Owen gave him his liberty, on condition he would continue quiet. Sir David being released, began soon to manifest a contrary disposition, which rather enraged Glyndwr; that, as a resentment, he burnt his house, and spoke extempore to Sir David's servant, as follows:

* "This gentleman we find, in 1415 (or battle of Agincourt), a captain in the English army under Henry V. and sent by that monarch to reconnoitre the French forces, then fix times the number of the English; but no way dismayed by their numbers, Captain Gam only made this report—*'There were enough to be killed, enough to be taken prisoners, and enough to run away!'* However, in the heat of the battle, and just as the first line of the French was routed, the second line began to march up to interrupt the progress of the victory. Henry V. perceiving this, alighted from his horse, and showed himself at the head of his men, where he fought on foot, encouraging some and assisting others: but in an instant eighteen French cavaliers, who were resolved to kill him or die in the attempt, rushed forth together, and in advancing one of them stunned him with a blow of his battle-axe. They then fell upon him in a body, and he was just going to sink under their blows, when David Gam, this valiant Welshman, and two more of the same country, came to his aid; which soon turned the attention of the French from the king: but being at last overpowered themselves, they fell at his feet, after killing (it is recorded) fourteen of the enemy; for which the king, after recovering his senses, knighted them all three in the field of battle, though dying of their wounds! Sir David Gam was also the person Shakespeare describes in the character of *Captain Fluclin.*"

• O gweli di wr côch cam
 • Yn ymofyn y Gwrigwen
 • Dywed ei bod hi tan y Lan
 • A nôd y glo ar ei Phenn.
 “However, Sir David was fortunate enough to escape Owen’s meditated vengeance, by retiring into England, where he continued in great confidence about the court of Henry V.” P. 192.

DOWNING, THE SEAT OF MR.
PENNANT.

“DOWNING, in the parish of Whiteford, near Holywell, beautifully situated among woods, but principally known to the world as the seat of the late Thomas Pennant, Esq. to whose indefatigable researches the natural history and topography of Great Britain is under many obligations. Downing is also the principal house in the township, and built about the year 1627; but the present name is evidently a corruption of Eden-Owain, or the township in which it stands. The house was founded by John Pennant, of Bychton, who, marrying a rich heiress of this place, erected an elegant mansion, with stone, brought from a dingle called Nant-y-bi, opposite the modern edifice. The present structure is erected in the form of a Roman H; a mode of architecture common in Wales at that period, with this ancient and pious motto on the front: ‘*Heb Dduw
beb ddim, a duw a digon*,’ signifying, Without God there is nothing: with God enough. The grounds are very extensive, with walks along fine swelling lands beneath the shady depth of glens, or through the contracted meads which meander quite to the shore; with delightful views towards the hills, and the ancient Pharos on Garreg. Over the channel of the Dee are the Hilbre Isles, on one of which are some remains of a cell of Benedictines; but the sea view is still more animated, with the sight of numerous fleets entering and sailing out of the port of Liverpool. Below the house are the ruins of the Abbey of Malandina, which add considerable beauty to the view.

“The house, much improved by Mr. Pennant at different times, consists of a hall and library, with a large parlour adjoining, and a smoking-room most antiquely furnished with ancient carvings, and the horns of all the Eu-

ropean beasts of chase. Above stairs is an elegant drawing-room and a tea-room.

“The library, which, if minutely described, would fill a handsome volume of itself, contains a numerous and choice collection of books, chiefly of history and natural history, and many scarce editions of the classics, with a great collection of MSS. being solely the labour and industry of the late Thomas Pennant, Esq. among which are his MS. volumes of ‘*The Outlines of the Globe*,’ in twenty-two volumes, folio, on which uncommon expense has been bestowed, in transcribing, ornaments, and illuminations. In the hall are some very good pictures by Peter Paillou, an inimitable painter of animals and birds: the parlour is also filled with portraits and paintings, mostly reduced from originals by the ingenious Moses Griffith, an untaught genius of North Wales, who accompanied Mr. Pennant in most of his tours through England, Scotland, and Wales.

“The estate also abounds with coal-works, as do the environs with lead-mines, particularly one hill, on which is a cavern, supposed to be made by the Romans when they worked there and the neighbouring mines.” P. 235.

A REMARKABLE EXHALATION AT
HARLECH.

“THIS neighbourhood, in 1694, was annoyed by a very singular phenomenon, in appearance like a prodigious fire, or kindled exhalation, proceeding from the sea, which set fire to fifteen ricks of hay and two barns. In this destructive manner it lasted about twelve days, ravaging the county about Harlech, and poisoning the grass with its stench. The flame, which was peculiarly destructive in the night, had a weak blue appearance, and easily extinguished, without injuring the people, who frequently ventured to it, and often in it, to save their effects; yet it was of that infectious nature, that it absolutely killed the cattle which fed on the grass; not only the time it lasted conspicuous to the eyes, but for three years afterwards, it caused a great mortality among the cattle, horses, and sheep.

“Mr. H. Llwyd attributes this strange phenomenon, unprecedented in history,

history, to locusts, that arrived here about two months before, which, being drowned in the sea, or dying of extreme cold on land, are supposed to have occasioned this infection. This hypothesis is founded on the number of locusts found dead near the seashore, and is a very rational argument in favour of its origin. It is also added, that it appeared chiefly in stormy nights, and sometimes in calm evenings, but any great noise, such as sounding of horns, firing of guns, &c. did repel it, and often extinguish the same; which means are said to have saved many hay-ricks and corn from its baneful effects." P. 253.

PENMAEN-MAWR,

"A MOST stupendous mountain, about eight miles from Bangor, being one thousand four hundred feet perpendicular from its base, and to travellers extremely dangerous. In 1772, a good turnpike road was attempted to be carried over the middle of the mountain, but from its situation, close to a frightful precipice, it was found impracticable to render it permanent and secure; therefore a stone wall was erected, to defend the traveller from the dangers of the horrid precipice below him, and the sea, which breaks just before the wall close to the road. When proceeding up the side of this stupendous mountain, amongnumEROus fragments of stones, fallen or starting through the rugged surface, we are happily concealed from the perpendicular declivity to the sea by a wall five feet high, erected on arches of stone bedded in strong mortar, but with such little foundation, that a large portion of it is continually falling into the Irish sea, or obstructing the road. A more horrific situation it is impossible to depict, or the imagination to conceive, for every moment threatens unavoidable destruction!"

"On the summit of this impregnable mountain stands Braich y Ddinas, an ancient fortification, encompassed with a strong treble wall, and within each wall the foundation of at least one hundred towers, all round, and of equal bigness, being about six yards in diameter within, in other places two yards thick, or sometimes only three. The castle seems to have been impregnable, there being no way to assault it,

because the hill is so high, steep, and rocky, and the walls so uncommonly strong. The way or entrance to it ascends by many turnings, so that one hundred men might defend themselves against a legion; yet there appears room for twenty thousand men within its ruinous walls. At the summit of the rock, within the innermost wall, is a well, which affords plenty of water even in the driest summer. Tradition makes this the strongest retreat the Britons had in Snowdon: while the magnitude of the works shows it to have been a princely fortification, strengthened by nature and art, and seated near the sea on one of the highest mountains in Carnarvonshire.

"Mr. Pennant, in his examination of this place, discovered four very distinct walls placed one above the other, one of which was six feet high, and one and a half thick. In most places the facing appeared perfect, but all of dry work. Between the walls, in all parts, were innumerable small buildings, mostly circular, regularly faced within and without, but not disposed in any certain order; though in some places the walls were intersected with others equally strong, and very judiciously calculated to cover the passage into Anglesea, being apparently impregnable to every thing but famine.

"Of this Braich y Ddinas, or the arm of the city, Governor Pownall, who examined it many years ago, has, contrary to the received opinion, conjectured that it has been one of the Druids consecrated high places of worship, and never intended for a place of defence; however, the opinions of Llwyd and Pennant, with what I have seen myself, are to me sufficient evidences of its having been originally a British fort." P. 287.

LXXXVII. *Lexicographia Neologica Gallica.* The Neological French Dictionary; containing Words of new Creation, not to be found in any French and English Vocabulary hitherto published; including those added to the Language by the Revolution and the Republic, which, by a Decree of the National Convention, in 1795, now form the Supplement to the fifth Edition

of the French Academy's Dictionary, printed at Paris, in 1798; with the new System of Weights, Measures, and Coins. The Whole forming a Remembrancer of the French Revolution, as comprising a short History of it, and a View of the Republic, with Anecdotes, &c. &c. By WILLIAM DUPRE'. 8vo. pp. 311. 7s. 6d. Clement.

EXTRACT FROM THE PREFACE.

" THIS vocabulary contains nearly a thousand words; not all, indeed, of new creation, but such of them as are to be found in the dictionaries hitherto published in this country, will be found here with the new acceptations which they have lately received. This number of words might have been greatly enlarged, had not some attention been paid to the rejection of such as appeared with the character of *neologism*, by which name the French critics have stigmatized the pruriency of many modern writers of their country in the matter of *new words*. It was, therefore, judged best to admit into this vocabulary those only which had been made use of by good writers or eloquent speakers, together with such as had already found a place in the latest dictionaries published at Paris. A list of the publications made use of in forming this collection of new words will be found at the end, the citations not being always accompanied with the name of the authority in the body of the work."

P. xvii.

EXTRACTS.

" *A-BAS*, interj. Down with him! down with it! A favourite expression with the French during the revolution, and much used by the mobs of Paris. It is a word of proscription, a signal of political anathema, which marks in a striking manner the fickleness of the French character; since they have called out *à-bas!* against all persons at different times, the idol of the evening being the object of their execration the next morning. (*A-bas M. Veto!* *Down with M. Veto!*—*A-bas Tallien!* *Down with Tallien!*—*A-bas Petion!* *Down with Petion!*—*A-bas le Directoire!* *Down with the Directory!*—*A-bas les*

rois! *Down with kings!*—*A-bas les saints!* *Down with the saints!*—*A-bas les impies!* *Down with the impious wretches!*—*A-bas les athées!* *Down with the atheists!*—*A-bas les Sans-Culottes!* *Down with the Sans-Culottes.*" P. i.

" *Institut aérostique*, f. m. aerostatic institution. This was first established by the Committee of Public Safety at the palace of Meudon, and is conducted with great secrecy. The company of *aeronauts* consists of fifty enterprising young men who are constantly in practice. Balloons are by this *institution* prepared for the different armies, and have their appropriate names; that employed at the battle of Fleurus on the 26th of June 1794 is called the *Entreprenant*. An *aeronaut* and two officers of rank ascended in it twice, and by their signals made with flags contributed to the success of the day (or rather successive days), which was of the greatest consequence to the republican arms. When the labours of the *aerostatic institution* shall have attained to a degree of general utility and perfection, the transactions, it has been said, will be published; at present the French public know but little of what is doing. The greatest improvement the *institution* has hitherto made, has been to add a kind of telegraph falling below the gondola, and suspended from it, consisting of eight cylinders of black taffeta, which form the signals by opening and shutting, and appear like so many paper lanterns. This simple apparatus forms two hundred and sixty-five changes, and has been found sufficient for the purposes of correspondence. The principal engineer has had in contemplation the construction of a telegraphic balloon which might be worked on *terra firma*, by means of strings communicating with the cylinders before mentioned, at the height of twelve feet from the ground." P. 8.

" *Attaché*, f. m. a servant. *Mot attaché* is now generally used in France instead of *mon valet de chambre*, *mon laquais*, *mon garçon*, &c. (Le ministre public de France fit son entrée à Gênes, précédé de deux *attachés*, portant habit de citoyen et la cocarde nationale tricolore au chapeau, &c. The public minister of France made his entry into Genoa, preceded by two servants, dressed in the habit of a citizen, having

having the three-coloured national cockade in his hat, &c.)" P. 33.

"*Briſſotinier*, v. a. to briſſotine; to empty the pockets or purse after the manner of Briſſot. Briſſot was driven from Paris for ſome tricks of youth, and fought an asylum in London, where he gained a proſiciency in an art which he was admirably qualified to diſtinguiſh himſelf by, whether in financial or literary matters.

"He began his brilliant career by the publication of a treatise on genteel frauds (ſur l'honnêteté des voleris). He did not confine his doctrine to barren arguments *à priori*, but instructed the public by weighty proofs of unanswerable and lucrative experience. This obtained for him the honour of having his name applied to feats of ſkill and address in the like way, called after him (*briſſotiner*) *briſſotining*, with the further eulogium of having proved himſelf an adept in the art of knavery (avoir bien mérité de la coquinerie)." P. 37.

"*Carmagnole*, f. f. a patriotic dance and ſong fo called. It owes its rife to the violence which broke out amongst the people, occaſioned by the late king's right of veto, the maſſacre of the Swiſts, and the knights of the po- niard. It was called the *carmagnole* of the royalists, that is to ſay, a *dance* and ſong made to incenſe the royalists.

"It is ſince become a common phrase in familiar ſpeech. (On dit que nous danſons la *carmagnole* partout fur la même air; pour dire, que les armes des *carmagnols* ont du ſuccès partout.—It is faid that we dance the *carmagnole* every where to the fame tune; which implies that the *carmagnols* have every where the fame ſucces.)

"*Carmagnole* was the name at firſt given to the particular tune and dance before mentioned; afterwards to a particular kind of coat, and to the foldiers who wore it, or who ſung the ſong; laſtly, the reports made in the National Convention by the framers of them.

"The word *carmagnole* is probably borrowed from the name of a town fo called in Piedmont, from whence came a number of diminutive fellows who ſerved in the capacity of lacqueys in Paris, and, as is uſual, were called after the name of the place from whence they came.

"This ſong is remarkable because it has given the name of *carmagnol* to the republican part of the French nation." P. 40.

"*Difetteux*, enſe, adj. famiſhed; ſtarving; having a ſcarcity of food. This adjective, which has been marked in the dictionaries heretofore as obſolete or ſeldom uſed, has been but too much employed during the late dearth of four ſuccesive years. (Une année difetteufe, a year of famine.)

"It is remarkable that though the ſubstantive *difette* is uſed to imply a famine, the adjective *difetteux*, formed from it, has been always uſed as an expression of ridicule, and to mean a poor needy devil; or, in a compaſſionate ſenſe, for a diſtrefled perfon. Furetière has ſaid: The academicians, ſo far from rendering the French language rich and copious, have ſtarved and impoveriſhed it (l'ont rendu difeteuf)." P. 91.

"*S'Embrancher*, v. recip. to interweave; to entwine itſelf. This verb was formerly uſed only in an active ſenſe, but is now become a reciprocal verb. (Cette question s'embranche avec une foule d'autres: this question interweaves itſelf with a number of others.) A metaphor taken from the interweaving, or entwining of the branches of trees, whether by art or nature. This verb is new." P. 103.

LXXXVIII. *The History and Antiquities of the Parish of St. David, South Wales*, from the Foundation of the Monastery in 470, by St. Patrick, to the present Time: the moſt ancient Documents collected from the Bodleian Library. To which is annexed, a correſt List of the Archbifhops, Bifhops, &c. who have filled that See. By GEORGE W. MANBY, Esq. Svo. pp. 206. 10s. 6d. E. Harding, Pall Mall.

LIST OF PLATES,

Drawn by the Author, and engraved in Aquatinta by Harriden.

CATHEDRAL of St. David's.

Ditto, South View.

Ditto, West View.

Bishop's

Bishop's Palace.
Entrance to King John's Hall.
Tower Gate.
Three Plates of Antiquities (outlines).

EXTRACTS.

OFFERINGS AT THE SHRINE OF ST. DAVID.

"IN the year 1085, King William entered Wales, and marched after the manner of pilgrimage as far as St. David's, where he offered and paid his devotion to the shrine of that celebrated Saint. In 1171 King Henry II. came and paid the same homage; he was afterwards entertained by the Bishop. November 26th, 1284, King Henry I. and his Queen Eleanor, came here for the same purpose, where pilgrims of all descriptions visited, and made their offerings. To this receptacle the offerings made at the other chapels were brought and deposited; where, they say, it was divided every Saturday among the canons and priests; and tradition says, that so great was the offering-money, that it used to be divided by dishfuls; the quantity not allowing them leisure to count it. That the devotion of this church was very great in the Popish times is certain; and how meritorious they accounted it, appears by this old verse:

'Roma semel quantum, bis dat Menevia tantum.'

'It was esteemed as meritorious to visit St. David's twice, as to visit Rome once.'

Which has been answered thus:

'Mercedem similem reddit uterque locus.'

'It is as meritorious to visit one, as the other.'

Tradition repeats another phrase,

'Every one must go once to Saint David's, dead or alive.' P. 27.

ST. PATRICK.

"WITHIN a short distance of the last (St. Justinian's), is Capel Patrick, Saint Patrick's chapel, full west of Saint David's, placed as near his own country, Ireland, as possible: it is now wholly decayed. Saint Patrick is reputed to have been born here, in an old square tower, which has lately been taken down, and no memorial is left of its former existence.

"It is a singular fact, that, in the parish of St. David's, there never was seen a snake, viper, or any species of these reptiles; and that immediately beyond its boundaries, they are found: the lower clais endeavours to account for it, by Saint David's being the birth-place of Saint Patrick, the tutelar saint of Ireland; in which country, it is well known, no such reptiles exist.

"This famed and illustrious personage, Saint Patrick, is said to have been the son of Calphuin, a British priest of noble and good family, by his wife Concha, sister to Saint Martin of Tours. He is represented to have been of an ingenuous and benign disposition: having received the early part of his education at home, he travelled into Gaul, and studied a considerable time under the celebrated Saint Germains, Bishop of Arles; whence he went to Rome, where, by the greatness of his learning, and sanctity of his manners, he gained the esteem and friendship of Cælestine, then bishop of that city. On his return from the continent, he was taken by pirates, and carried into Ireland; where he remained some years, being advised to employ his great talents in attempting to instruct those people in the knowledge of the Christian religion: and having beheld with compassion their want of that information, he cheerfully undertook the arduous task of their instruction and conversion, in which work he employed the remaining years of his life; and his pious and learned labours were crowned with the most astonishing success, for which he was enrolled in their catalogue of saints. In the early part of his life he founded the cathedral church there, and another afterwards at Saint David's. He died in Ireland, Anno Salutis 491, in the 122d year of his age; and lies buried at Down, in that kingdom, together with Saint Bridgett and Columba, as appears by these lines:

'Hi tres in Duno tumulo tumulantur in uno;
 'Brigitta, Patricius, atque Columba pius.' P. 57.

RAMSAY ISLAND—MIGRATING SEA-BIRDS.

"THIS island is now in the form of a triangle, about two miles long, and one

one in its extreme breadth in the centre: there formerly was a wall run across it; but its traces, and for what purpose, are not known. Anciently it was called Ptolemeus Lymen; and on it were two chapels, but now no vestige of them is to be seen: one was dedicated to Saint David; and the other, named Ynis Devanog, dedicated to a saint of that name; who with Faganus, was sent by Bishop Elutherius to preach the word of life to the Britons, in the year 180 after the ascension of our Saviour Jesus Christ. The last-mentioned chapel, with great part of the island, has been swallowed up by the sea, as far as the rocky excrescences to the westward of it. The island, it is said, was formerly inhabited by saints; and that no less than 20,000 have been buried there: it keeps many cattle, sheep, and rabbits; but the latter are nearly extirpated by the rats, that periodically swim across the sound during the summer. Great part of the soil is fertile, and yields good grain: but this host of vermin convert it to their own use, denying the benefit of the cultivation to its occupiers.

"To this island, and the rocks adjoining, yearly resort such an immense number of migrating sea-birds, of several sorts, as none but those who have been eye-witnesses thereof can be prevailed upon to believe, the cliffs being nearly covered by them: they chiefly consist of the eygug, the razor-bill, which is the mere of Cornwall; the puffin, which is the arctic duck of Clusius; and a variety of gulls. Here they all come to deposit their eggs, and rear their young, in places so high and rugged, as to make it almost inaccessible to the foot of plunder or hand of violence: their visits and returns are very precipitate; for, after the breeding season, they depart in the night: in the previous evening the rocks are covered, and the next morning not a bird is to be seen: in like manner, on their return in the evening, not a bird will be seen, and the next morning the rocks will be full of them. They also visit commonly for a week about Christmas, and then finally take their departure until the following breeding-season. The eygug and razor-bill lay but one egg each, on the bare rock; never leaving it until it is hatched, and their offspring able to follow them, either from instinctive fondness,

or for fear of the gulls, their greatest enemies. The puffin much resembles the parrot, with an arched red beak: they breed in holes vacated by the rabbits. The vast number of eggs laid on these rocks are, when in season, the principal subsistence of the poorer sort of inhabitants about Saint David's: the eggs are about the size of a duck's, beautifully spotted and variegated with many colours; all vary much, and they say there are not two alike."

P. 63.

"North-west of this island are six rocks, supposed to have been formerly part of the same; they are called the Bishop and Clerks, well known and dreaded by all seamen who pass St. George's Channel. They are thus spoken of by an author, about the time of the Spanish invasion in 1588: 'They are stout sturdy fellows, and will not budge a foot; are able to resist the King of Spain's great navy, and put her Majesty to no charge at all.' One of them, most to the southward, is called Carreg Efcob, or the Bishop's Rock; the second, Carreg-yr-Rosfan; the third, Gwen Carreg, or White Rock; the fourth, Deveck; the fifth, Carreg Hawloe; the sixth, Emfcar. These rocks are watchfully looked after by all passing this sea, as this bishop and his clerks preach such deadly doctrine to their winter audience."

P. 66.

LXXXIX. *A View of a Course of Lectures, to be commenced the first Monday after Christmas 1801, on the State of Society at the Opening of the nineteenth Century: containing Inquiries into the Constitutions, Laws, and Manners, of the principal States of Europe.* By HENRY REDHEAD YORKE, of the Inner Temple, Student at Law. 8vo. pp. 46. 1s. Clement.

EXTRACT.

"BEFORE I enter into a minute and circumstantial examination of the relative power, fundamental laws, and domestic policy of the principal states of Europe, I shall present to my audience a general outline of the progress of society and government, from the earliest

earliest ages to the period which falls more immediately under our consideration. In this mode only, can government and manners be studied to advantage. Such a recapitulation will often be found to explain the causes of many existing institutions. In illustrating the progress of jurisprudence, we shall have frequent occasions of admiring and observing how legislation refined, and kept pace with the improvement of the intellectual powers and the moral advancement of nations. To delineate in this manner the spirit of nations, we must recur to authentic documents, credible and impartial historians; and to determine their relative happiness, we must compare the accounts of their moral state, delivered by different writers, living in different ages, yet representing mankind under similar situations. Thus Homer and Ossian may be adduced to illustrate the primitive histories of the Bible, and Charlevoix and Lafitau to corroborate the descriptions of Homer and Ossian. In this light, the beautiful art of poetry, which falls principally within the province of imagination, may be rendered subservient to the investigations of reason. By the aid of this comparative history, we may collate materials from Hindu laws to elucidate the institutions which the human mind has invented in similar stages of society. The successes of our discoveries on this head, must depend on the care with which we select and arrange our materials. Modern compilations afford but little assistance, and the voluminous chronicles of nations, record frequently nothing but insipid genealogies and unprofitable fables.

" Unfortunately, this exposition of the order of social life and civil policy, cannot be circumstantially extracted from the general relations of history. Inquiries of this sort are seldom attended to by historians. They prefer what is brilliant to what is useful, and dwell with raptures on the conduct of generals, the valour of armies, and the consequences of victory and defeat. And while they describe and embellish the politics of princes and the fortunes of nations, the splendid qualities of eminent men, and the lustre of heroic

actions, they neglect all disquisitions into laws and manners, as unworthy of remark, or incapable of ornament. Antiquaries have displayed much critical and laborious investigation, but the spirit of customs and of laws has also escaped their penetration. They often throw together their materials without arrangement, they are often unable to reason from them, and, forgetting that the human mind advances progressively, they ascribe to rude ages the ideas and sentiments of their own times. These are all impediments in the way of political examination, and they have besides the fatal tendency of obliterating for a time our sense of moral duty and the true interests of nations. Neither are these descriptions the most entertaining portions of historical narration. Scenes of carnage, though dressed in the pomp of words, may dazzle the eyes for a while, but they cannot ultimately fix the attention of mankind. Doth not the ingenuous scholar, who has enlarged and enlightened the faculties of the human mind; the inventive artist, who has increased the comforts and conveniences of human life; the adventurous merchant or mariner, who has discovered unknown countries, and opened new sources of trade and wealth; deserve a place in the annals of his country, and in the grateful remembrance of posterity, equally with the good prince, the wise politician, or the victorious general? Can we form just ideas of the characters and circumstances of our ancestors, by viewing them only in the flames of civil and religious discord, or in the fields of blood and slaughter; without ever attending to their conduct and condition, in the more permanent and peaceful scenes of social life? Have we no curiosity to know at what time, by what degrees, and by whose means, mankind have been enriched with the treasures of learning, political wisdom, arts and commerce? It is impossible. Such curiosity is natural, laudable, and useful; and it is hoped, that this attempt to gratify it, will be received by the public with some degree of favour*."

" Had the generality of historians attended to these important considera-

* " See Dr. Henry's General Preface to his History of England. This indefatigable and excellent historian is a marked exception to the preceding observation."

tions, the labours of moral inquiry would have been abridged, light would have been diffused over the most interesting portions of human science, and I should have been enabled to trace the progress of society from the uncultivated forest to the polished capital, with the utmost exactitude, and without being once compelled to hazard a conjecture. But as these things have not been performed, the subject is exposed to discussion and to difference of opinion; it will therefore be my duty to investigate it in such a manner as to convince the minds of my hearers, that laws, government, and manners, have not only a necessary connexion with history, but with each other. This fact has been unanswerably demonstrated by Dr. Gilbert Stuart in his masterly 'View of Society in Europe,' a work that must immortalize his reputation as one of the most acute and philosophical inquirers into the dark annals of unlettered ages. Laws and manners, says he, are commonly understood to be nothing more than collections of ordinances, and matters of fact; and government is too often a foundation for mere speculation and metaphysical refinements. Yet law is only a science, when observed in its spirit and history; government cannot be comprehended but by attending to the minute steps of its rise and progression; and the systems of manners which characterize man in all the periods of society which pass from ruderous to civility, cannot be displayed without the discrimination of these different situations. It is in the records of history, in the scene of real life, not in the conceits and the abstractions of fancy and philosophy, that human nature is to be studied. But, while it is in the historical manner that laws, customs, and government, are to be inquired into, it is obvious, that their dependence and connexion are close and intimate. They all tend to the same point, and to the illustration of one another. It is from the consideration of them all, and in their union, that we are to explain the complicated forms of civil society, and the wisdom and accident which mingle in human affairs." P. 17.

XC. The Flowers of Persian Literature: containing Extracts from the
VOL. V.—No. LI.

most celebrated Authors, in Prose and Verse; with a Translation into English: being a Companion to Sir William Jones's Persian Grammar. To which is prefixed, an Essay on the Language and Literature of Persia. By S. ROUSSEAU, Teacher of the Persian Language. 4to. pp. 222. 18s. Sewell, Murray and Higley.

EXTRACTS FROM THE PREFACE.

" IN the first part is given an Essay on the Language and Literature of Persia, exhibiting a concise history thereof, from the earliest accounts to the present time; interspersed with anecdotes of the most celebrated Persian authors, and the unbounded munificence of the Eastern sovereigns to the literati, who were invited to reside at their courts; where they were carefully watched, lest, in the hour of discontent, they should make their escape to the capital of some other monarch.

" The second part contains a large selection of entertaining and useful pieces, from different authors, which are given in Persian and English, so literal, that any person who has acquired the rudiments of the language, may, with very little trouble, turn them out of Persian into English.

" The description of the Garden of Irim (from the Oriental Collections, vol. iii. p. 32, to which work the editor is greatly indebted for several extracts in the following pages), exhibits an account of that imaginary terrestrial paradise, which is so frequently alluded to by the Asiatic poets. This piece, notwithstanding it be a description of a fabulous garden, cannot fail to be acceptable, since it shows the superstition of the Eastern nations, multitudes of the people implicitly believing that such a garden once existed.

" The Geographical Extracts, which follow the above, point out the distances from one place to another, by which the young Orientalist will be enabled to travel, as it were, from one town to another at a great distance, with as much facility, as if he had a book of roads placed before him, which will be rendered the more pleasing, since it is laid down by an Oriental writer of celebrity. The original work whence

whence they are taken, is entitled, 'Nozhat al Coloub,' which is divided into three parts; the first treating of astronomy, the second of anatomy, and the third of geography. M. D'Herbelot quotes this MS. and styles the author 'Le Geographe Persan,' and M. de Sacy, in illustrating his excellent 'Memoires sur diverses Antiquités de la Perse,' made use of it." P. vii.

"The Fables given at the close of the present volume, are extracted from the Baharistaun, or Mansion of Spring, an admired work by the celebrated Jaumee. They were originally published in 1778, in the Anthologia Persica, at Vienna, with a Latin version by Jenisch. To our account of Jaumee, we may add, that he was the son of Mevlana Mohammed of Ispahan, and was born A. H. 817. He was remarkably polite, of a very gentle disposition, and endued with such extensive learning, that it was supposed there was not, throughout the empire of Persia, so complete a master of the language as himself. He was skilled in the noblest sciences, and extremely ardent in the pursuit of letters. Having embraced the religious order of Mooloo, he applied himself solely to literature, and made so great a progress therein, that he seems to be allowed to have been the most elegant of all the modern Persian poets; which is the reason that the fame of his wisdom and learning has pervaded nearly every Eastern nation, where a taste for literature and the fine arts has been cultivated. Even princes, who have been themselves men of erudition and exalted talents, have lavished upon him the most unbounded praises and the highest honours. He was very intimate with the Sultan Aboo Said, who never dismissed him without some distinguishing mark of his favour and approbation, and even went himself frequently to visit the poet, being captivated by his manners and his learning. This prince continued the friend of Jaumee so long as he lived: after his death our poet enjoyed the same favours from his successor Sultan Hossein Mirza, who was highly delighted with his elegance of manners according to Jenisch, and his pleasing mode of con-

versation. He died at the advanced age of eighty-one, A. H. 898, having spent, we may say, the whole of his life in the cultivation of letters." P. xx.

EXTRACTS.

EXTRACTS FROM THE ESSAY ON THE LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE OF PERSIA.

"AT the time when the Koran was first published in Arabia, a merchant who had lately returned from a long journey, brought with him some Persian romances, which he interpreted to his countrymen, who were extremely delighted with them, and used to say openly, that the stories of griffons and giants were more amusing to them than the moral lessons of Mohammed. Part of a chapter in the Koran was immediately written, to stop the progress of these opinions; the merchant was severely reprimanded; his tales were treated as pernicious fables, hateful to God and his prophet; and Omar, from the same motive of policy, determined to destroy all the foreign books which should fall into his hands. Thus the idle loquacity of an Arabian traveller, by setting his legends in competition with the precepts of a powerful lawgiver, was the cause of that enthusiasm in the Mohammedans, which induced them to burn the famous library of Alexandria*, and the records of the Persian empire.

"It was a long time before the native Persians could recover from the shock of this violent revolution; and their language seems to have been very little cultivated under the Khalifs, who gave greater encouragement to the literature of the Arabians: but, when the power of the Abbasides began to decline, and a number of independent princes arose in the different provinces of their empire, the arts of elegance, and chiefly poetry, revived in Persia; and there was hardly a prince or governor of a city, who had not several poets and men of letters in his train. The Persian tongue was consequently restored in the tenth century; but it was very different from the Deri or Pehlevi of the ancients; it was mixed

* "The number of MSS. supposed to have been burnt at this place exceeded 500,000. They were distributed as fuel to the keepers of 4000 public baths."

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with the words of the Koraun, and with expressions from the Arabian poets, whom the Persians considered as their masters, and affected to imitate in their poetical measures, and the turn of their verses." P. 6.

" Towards the close of the eleventh century arose three royal patrons of Persian literature, who were remarkable not only for their abilities and liberality, but for the singular and uninterrupted harmony which distinguished their correspondence. These were Malek-shah Jilaleddin, King of Persia; Keder ben Ibrahim, Sultaun of the Gheznevides; and Keder Khaun*, the Khaukaun or King of Turqueftaun beyond the Jihon. The Khaukaun supported, with most magnificent appointments, a literary academy in his palace, consisting of a hundred men of the highest reputation in the East. The prince would frequently preside at their exercises of genius; on which occasions, four large basins filled with gold and silver were placed by the side of his throne, which he liberally distributed to those who principally excelled†.

" At the opening of the twelfth century lived Anvauree, a native of Abiurd, in Khoransaun, whose adventures deserve to be related, as they will likewise show in what high esteem the polite arts were held in Asia, at the time when learning first began to dawn in Europe. Anvauree, when he was very young, was fitting at the gate of his college, when a man richly dressed rode by him on a fine Arabian horse, with a numerous train of attendants; upon his asking who it was, he was told that it was a poet belonging to the court. When Anvauree reflected on the honour conferred on poetry, for which art he had a very early bent, he applied himself to it more ardently than ever, and, having finished a poem, presented it to the Sultaun. This was a prince of the Seljukian dynasty, named Sanjaz, a

great admirer of the fine arts: he approved the work of Anvauree, whom he invited to his palace, and raised him even to the first honours of the state. He found many other poets at court, among whom were Sulmaun, Zuleer, and Rufsheedee, all men of wit and genius, but each eminent in a different way; the first, for the delicacy of his lyric verses; the second, for the moral tendency of his poems; and the third, for the chastity of his compositions; a virtue which his predecessors and contemporaries were too apt to neglect. In the same century flourished Nezaumee, another poet of eminence and virtue." P. 22.

" A vast deal of fiction is observable in the writings of every nation, particularly in those which relate to the history of former times; and it is equally applicable to the Eastern writers as to those of the Western world. The fables of the Pagan priests of the Western countries are now generally looked upon with contempt, and those of the Eastern nations deserve no better treatment; and we must remark, that the priests of that persuasion found it their interest to invent stories relative to facts which never took place, and to propagate error, for the sole purpose of increasing their own importance, well knowing, that, without some such auxiliary, the eyes of the multitude would soon be opened, and their trade and dependance shortly be annihilated: yet the traditions of these men are not to be wholly disregarded. What are the relations of the ancient Egyptians? What are the early annals of Babylonia, of Greece, of Rome? Are they not mere traditions? Exclusive then of such Persian authors as have escaped the fury of Mohammedan bigots, or of Arabian proscriptors, and other records, of which our imperfect knowledge of their language, and slender intercourse with their country, has hitherto deprived us of any positive intelligence, one ground of

* " This prince's court was uncommonly splendid; even when he appeared abroad he was preceded by seven hundred horsemen with silver battle-axes, and followed by an equal number bearing maces of gold."

† " Amak, called also Abou'l-najib al Bokhari, who was the chief of the poets, had, exclusive of a great pension, a vast number of male and female slaves, with thirty horses of state richly caparisoned, and a retinue in proportion, which attended him wherever he went. Vid. D'Herbelot *Bibliothèque Orientale*, p. 105, 812, 983, and the *Negaristaun*."

presumptive information, i. e. by means of tradition, ought not to be entirely disregarded; and the same degree of candour we use towards the tales of the Western writers ought certainly to be extended to those of the East. In all countries where any difficulty, from whatever cause, has been found in the registering public events, tradition has ever been observed to flourish with superior strength; and, through the medium of marvellous embellishment, presents us often with the great outlines of the achievements of former times. Where the written memorials of a people are few, and where fewer still can read them, he who rehearses a rude poem, or a romantic tale, is looked up to with respect. The prevalence of tradition, in the darker ages of Europe, is unquestioned. The bards, the scalds, and the minstrels, were caressed by the rudest warriors in those times of barbarism and ignorance. Their older compositions are generally considered as the real actions of ancient chieftains; fiction prevailed not so much till later ages: it was the offspring of refinement; and refinement led the way to the downfall of oral record. For, when learning became more diffused; when feudal lords considered it as no disgrace to sign their names; when written language became disseminated through various orders, and many could read the history of those deeds which formerly had been confined to the knowledge of a particular order of men; their songs wanted novelty, they were no longer sought after, their profession fell into contempt, and at length was gradually extinguished." P. 48.

"Should, however, the Arabic and Persian languages ever become, like the Greek and Latin, objects of general education (and we are rejoiced to find they are much more studied than they were a few years ago), and learned men, freed from the fetters of prejudice, be once brought to suppose, that Grecian and Roman information may sometimes be assisted or corrected by a judicious study of Eastern authors, many discoveries must evidently be expected, which may furnish a variety of clues to the dark labyrinths of ancient mythology, history, and manners. And now we are speaking of the light that

may be thrown on several parts of the Holy Writings, it may be necessary to observe, that there are many names in Esther, Ezra, and Nehemiah, which are undoubtedly of Persian origin: and others which are probably so, though under Chaldaic or Hebrew disguise: as *Esther* from *ester* or *sitaauru*, a star; *mebmaun*, a stranger or guest; *meebach*, a wine-branch; *melzaur*, a vineyard; *vafstee*, a beautiful or excellent woman. Many other examples might be given, but these may be sufficient to convince any reasonable person of the veracity of our deductions.

"There is yet another circumstance which might, if properly attended to, throw great light on the history of remote antiquity; we mean the valuable remains of those sculptured figures, and mysterious inscriptions, that still decorate the walls of the royal apartments, where the victorious Alexander celebrated his triumph over the fallen Darius (Darab), and in which the lovely Thais, by the side of the Grecian hero,

"Sat like a blooming Eastern bride," and, but too successfully, urged him to destroy, in one fatal hour of amorous intoxication, the metropolis of the Persian empire, and of the world, with one of the noblest productions of human labour and ingenuity, the magnificent palace of the sons of Cyrus."

"Among the curious figures on the monument of Rustam, in the neighbourhood of Persepolis, are those which are supposed to have been intended as effigies of that celebrated warrior and his favourite mistres; but the lower parts are concealed amid devouring heaps of rubbish, which perhaps hinder us from viewing some valuable inscriptions relative to that hero of antiquity. And among the antiquities found at Babylon and Persepolis, the most curious, according to the Chevalier Clergeau de la Barre, were several volumes of parchment, covered with characters hitherto undeciphered, and an emerald of two inches long, containing the figure of Alexander, engraved with such exquisite art as to be only discernible when placed in a particular point of view between the eye and the light: a wonderful specimen

this

this of the extensive powers of the ancient Asiatic artists*.

" It is not an improbable conjecture, that many of the sculptured marbles of Persepolis are the faithful depositaries of some very valuable and important matters. Their inscriptions may contain records of illustrious actions, the memory of which has long been lost; political registers of the mightiest empire in the universe; or religious mysteries, inscribed in characters, perhaps but little known, or not sufficiently investigated: nevertheless, we cannot help indulging the fond idea, that if our travellers were to pay a due attention to the exact copying of the inscriptions about that ancient city, and to consult the most intelligent inhabitants of the neighbourhood relative to their form and construction, and likewise their connexion, something considerable might be done towards deciphering those remains of antiquity, which hitherto appear to have baffled the researches of modern investigators." P. 52.

XCI. *Select Amusements in Philosophy and Mathematics*; proper for agreeably exercising the Minds of Youth. Translated from the French of M. L. DESPIAU, formerly Professor of Mathematics and Philosophy at Paris: with several Corrections and Additions, particularly a large Table of the Chances or Odds at Play. The Whole recommended as an useful Book for Schools, by Dr. Hutton, Professor of Mathematics at Woolwich. 12mo. pp. 397. 5s. 6d. *Kearstley.*

CONTENTS.

PREFACE—Introduction—Arithmetic—Political Arithmetic—Application of Analysis to the Solution of different Problems—Palingenesy—The Amianthus—Acoustics and Music—Aquising Secrets—The Magnet—The learned Spaniel—

* " See Ouseley's *Perf. Misc.* Introd. p. xvii. and chap. v. p. 97, 114, &c. and also an engraved delineation of the figures of Rustam and his mistress in Le Bruyn's *Travels*."

Cooling of Liquors—Astronomical Paradoxes—Animal Magnetism—Weights for Balances—Perpetual Lamps—Meridian Line—Hygrometer—Snails—Extensive Tables of the Odds or Chances at all Sorts of Games—Itinerary Measures of different Nations.

EXTRACTS.

OF ECHOES; HOW PRODUCED; ACCOUNT OF THE MOST REMARKABLE ECHOES, AND OF SOME PHENOMENA RESPECTING THEM.

" ECHOES are well known; but however common this phenomenon may be, it must be allowed that the manner in which it is produced, is involved in considerable obscurity; and that the explanation given of it does not sufficiently account for all the circumstances attending it.

" All philosophers almost have ascribed the formation of echoes to a reflection of sound, similar to that experienced by light, when it falls on a polished body; but, as D'Alembert observes, this explanation is false; if it were not, a polished surface would be necessary for the production of an echo; but it is well known that this is not the case. Echoes, indeed, are frequently heard opposite to old walls, which are far from being polished; near shapeless masses of rock, and in the neighbourhood of forests, and even of clouds. This reflection of sound, therefore, is not of the same nature as that of light.

" It is evident, however, that the formation of an echo can be ascribed only to the repercuion of sound; for echoes are never heard, but when sound is intercepted and made to rebound by one or more obstacles.

" Sound, as already said, is propagated in every direction by the vibration of the particles of the air; but if any column of air rests against some obstacle that prevents the direct movement of the elastic globules, which serve as the vehicle of sound, it must rebound in a contrary direction, and striking the ear, if it

meets with one in the line of repercussion, convey to it a repetition of the same sound, provided the original sound does not affect that organ at the same instant.

" But we are taught by experience that the ear does not distinguish the succession of two sounds, unless there be between them the interval of at least one twelfth of a second; for during the most rapid movement of instrumental music, each measure of which cannot be estimated at less than a second, twelve notes are the utmost that can be comprehended in a measure, to render the succession of the sounds distinguishable; consequently the obstacle, which reflects the sound, must be at such a distance, that the reverberated sound shall not succeed the direct sound, till after one twelfth of a second; and as sound moves at the rate of about $114\frac{1}{2}$ feet in a second, and consequently about ninety-five feet in the twelfth of a second, it thence follows that, to render the reverberated sound distinguishable from the direct sound, the obstacle must be at the distance of no more than about forty-eight feet.

" There are single and compound echoes. In the former, only one repetition of the sound is heard; in the latter, there are two, three, four, five, &c. repetitions. We are even told of echoes that can repeat the same word forty or fifty times.

" Single echoes are those where there is only one obstacle; but double, triple, or quadruple echoes, give us reason to suppose several obstacles disposed in such a manner, that the different reflected sounds strike the ear at times sensibly different.

" There are some echoes that repeat several words in succession; but this is not astonishing, and must always be the case when a person is at such a distance from the echo, that there is sufficient time to pronounce several words before the repetition of the first has reached the ear.

" There are certain echoes which have been much celebrated on account of their singularity, or of the number of times that they repeat the same word. Misson, in his description of Italy, speaks of an echo, in the vineyard of Simonetta, which repeated the same word forty times.

" At Woodstock, in Oxfordshire, there is an echo which repeats the same sound fifty times.

" The description of an echo still more singular, near Rosneath, some miles distant from Glasgow, may be found in the Philosophical Transactions for the year 1668. If a person, placed at the proper distance, plays eight or ten notes of an air with a trumpet, the echo faithfully repeats them, but a third lower; after a short silence, another repetition is heard, in a tone still lower; and another short silence is followed by a third repetition, in a tone a third lower.

" A similar phenomenon observed in some places is, that if a person stands in a certain position, and pronounces a few words with a low voice, they are heard only by another person standing in another determinate place: this arises from the elliptic form of arches, which have the property of collecting in one of their foci the rays that proceed diverging from the other.

" The following phenomenon depends on the same theory.

" To construct two figures, to be placed at the two ends of a hall, one of which shall repeat to the ear of a person what has been whispered into the ear of the other figure, without being heard by any other person in the hall.

" Provide two heads or busts, made of pasteboard, resting on pedestals, and place them in a hall at such a distance from each other as you may think proper. Then convey a tube of tin-plate, an inch in diameter, from the ear of one of the figures, through the pedestal on which it rests, and below the flooring, till it reach the mouth of the other figure, passing through its pedestal in the same manner as that of the former: this tube must be a little wider at each of its extremities, somewhat in the form of a funnel.

" When it is necessary to bend this tube, care must be taken to cover the interior angles with a piece of tin-plate inclined at an angle of forty-five degrees, that the voice may be directly reflected from one part of the tube to the other, and that the sound may be conveyed distinctly to the ear.

" This construction will produce the following effect: If a person whispers into the ear of one of these figures, the words he pronounces will be distinctly

tinctly heard by a second person who applies his ear to the mouth of the other figure.

"The secret of the magic mirror, as it is called, depends on the same theory. The construction of this mirror is as follows:

"Fix, in a vertical position, a concave mirror, two feet in diameter, and of such a degree of curvature, that the focus of the rays which fall upon it, in a parallel direction, may be at the distance of twelve or fifteen inches from the reflecting surface. At this distance place a small figure, but in such a manner, that its head may be exactly in the focus.

"This mirror must be placed at the distance of eight or ten feet from a wall opposite to it, and parallel to its surface: the wall must have in it an aperture, equal to the surface of the mirror, concealed by a very fine curtain, that the sound may easily pass through it. Provide also a second mirror of the same form, with a similar figure, and place it behind the wall at the distance of two or three feet from it, and opposite to the former, with the figure in its focus. It may be readily conceived, that when a person only whispers into the ear of the small figure behind the wall, a person standing near that placed in the focus of the opposite mirror, will hear very distinctly the words whispered into the ear of the former. In this manner, the person who asks a question, standing near the first figure, hears the answer which is whispered into the ear of the other behind the wall.

"In order to conceal entirely the apparatus, which produces this effect, and to render it much more extraordinary, the pretended concave magic mirror may be covered with a piece of gauze, which will not prevent the transmission of the sounds from the one focus to the other.

"The Memoirs of the Academy of Sciences, at Paris, for the year 1692, speak of a very remarkable echo in the court of a gentleman's seat, called Le Genetay, in the neighbourhood of Rouen. It is attended with this singular phenomenon, that a person who sings or speaks in a low tone does not hear the repetition of the echo, but only his own voice; while, on the other hand, those who listen hear only the repetition of the echo, but with

surprising variations; for the echo seems sometimes to approach and sometimes to recede, and at length ceases when the person who speaks removes to some distance in a certain direction. Sometimes only one voice is heard, sometimes several, and sometimes one is heard on the right and another on the left. An explanation of all these phenomena, deduced from the semicircular form of the court, may be seen in the above collection." P. 191.

OF A NEW INSTRUMENT CALLED THE HARMONICA.

"THIS instrument was invented in America by Dr. Franklin, who gave a description of it to Father Beccaria, which the latter published in his works, printed in 1773.

"It is well known that when the finger, a little moistened, is rubbed against the edge of a drinking-glass, a sweet sound is produced; and that the tone varies according to the form, size, and thickness of the glass. The tone may be raised or lowered also by putting into the glass a greater or less quantity of water. Dr. Franklin says, that an Irishman, named Puckeridge, first conceived the idea, about twenty years before, of constructing an instrument with several glasses of this kind, adjusted to the various tones, and fixed to a stand in such a manner, that different airs could be played upon them. Mr. Puckeridge having afterwards been burnt in his house, along with this instrument, Mr. Delaval constructed another of the same kind, with glasses better chosen, which he applied to the like purpose. About fourteen or fifteen years ago, an English lady at Paris, performed, it is said, exceedingly well on this instrument, which however did not long continue in vogue: at present it is confined to cabinets among other musical curiosities.

"A juggler, some years ago, to show his dexterity, placed on a table eight glasses of the same size, which had all the same tone, and boasted that he could tune them in an instant by pouring water into them, so as to play an air with the utmost precision. 'Those who tune violins or organs,' said he, 'are not so dexterous as I; since they often labour for a quarter of an hour, and try the same pipe or string twenty times, before they can

'can bring it to the proper tone.' While he pronounced these words he poured water into the eight glasses; then striking them one after the other with a small rod, he immediately showed that they emitted, with great exactness, the tones of the gamut, *ut, re, mi, fa, sol, la, si, ut*; and as he then amused the spectators by playing an air, which he accompanied with his voice, they overlooked the artifice he had employed in tuning his instrument so speedily.

"Each of the glasses had a small hole at the proper height, so that when filled to the brim the water ran out till there remained no more than the quantity requisite to give the glass the necessary tone. By these means, the instrument tuned itself in a moment; and the musician had no occasion to pour in, or pour out water, at different times, to render the tone graver or more acute." P. 228.

ON WHAT IS CALLED A FALSE VOICE.

"A FINE voice is certainly preferable to every instrument whatever. Unfortunately, many persons have only a false voice; but, in general, this does not arise from any defect in the organs of the voice, which are almost the same in all mankind: it originates from the ears, owing to an inequality of strength in these organs, or to some want of delicacy or tension, in consequence of which, as they receive unequal impressions, we necessarily hear false sounds, and the voice, which endeavours to imitate them, becomes itself false. On this subject Dr. Vandermonde made a very simple experiment, which he relates in his *Essay on improving the human Mind*, and which may be repeated on children who pronounce with a false voice, in order that a remedy may be applied at that tender age when the organs are still susceptible of modification.

"The experiment, as he describes it, is as follows: 'I made choice,' says he, 'of a clear day, and having fixed on a spacious apartment, I took up my station in a place judged most convenient for my experiments. I then stopped one of the ears of the child who was to be the subject of

them, and made her recede from me, 'till she no longer heard the sound of a repeating watch which I held in my hand, or at least until the sound of the bell produced a very weak impression on her organs of hearing. I then desired her to remain in that place, and immediately going up to her unstopped ear, and stopped the other, taking care to cause her to shut her mouth, lest the sound should be communicated to the ear through the eustachian tube. I then returned to my station, and making my watch again strike, the child was quite surprised to find that she heard tolerably well; upon which I made a sign to her to recede again till she could scarcely hear the sound.' It results from this experiment, that in the ears of persons who have a false voice, there is an inequality of strength; and the means of remedying this defect in children, is to ascertain by a similar mode, which ear is the weakest. When this has been discovered, nothing better can be done, in my opinion," says Dr. Vandermonde, "than to stop up the other as much as possible, and to take advantage of that valuable opportunity of frequently exercising the weak ear, but in such a manner as not to fatigue it. The one thus made to labour alone will be strengthened, while the other will always retain the same force. The child's ear should from time to time be unstopped, in order to make it sing, and to discover whether both ears have the same degree of sensibility." This natural defect may be then corrected, and any person may be made to acquire a true voice, provided the means pointed out by Dr. Vandermonde be early employed.

"Persons who have a false voice, in consequence of some inequality in the ears, may be compared to those who squint; that is to say, who, in order to see an object distinctly, do not turn equally towards it the axis of both eyes, because they have not the same visual powers. It is probable that the former, if they had early accustomed themselves to make use of only one ear, would hear distinctly different sounds which they would have imitated, and would not have contracted a false voice." P. 230.

XCI. *The Order and Method of instructing Children, with Strictures on the modern System of Education.* By **GEORGE CRABB,** Author of a Grammar and other elementary Works in French. 12mo. pp. 204. 3s. 6d. *Longman and Rees.*

CONTENTS.

INTRODUCTION—On Association—Mental Powers—Operation of Perception—Compounding—Comparing—Analysing—Combining—Judging—Memory—Reflection—Exercise of the Powers—Logic and Language—Arithmetic—Grammar—Reading—Composition—Languages.

EXTRACT FROM THE INTRODUCTION.

"TO show how the powers of the infant mind may be called into action, and its energies unfolded, is the object of this work. Every system of education hitherto offered to the public attention, seems to tend more towards storing the memory with a multiplicity of objects, than giving strength and vigour to the operations of thought,

"In all ages men have pursued knowledge to the detriment of wisdom. Among the learned of the preceding centuries, the greatest part of a man's life was spent in storing up a copious fund of materials from the depths of antiquity; and in making the most abstruse researches into mysterious subjects, which served for no purpose but gratifying the vain curiosity of the inquirer. By such men, therefore, nothing valuable in common life has been either studied or practised.

"The present age can boast of neither wisdom nor learning. We have not application to gain the one, norreadiness to acquire the other. We skim the surface of information, and, by learning a little of every thing, we save ourselves the trouble of learning enough of any thing. It would be fortunate for us if this superficiality was as innocent as it is contemptible. But the two lines in Pope are well exemplified by the effects which a slight knowledge of things has on our minds:

"A little learning is a dangerous thing:
Drink deep, or taste not, of the Pierian
spring."

VOL. V.—No. LI.

"It is the unavoidable consequence of general information, to excite in the mind of a person, an undue opinion of his own powers, and to give him an assumption in judging of men and things. All that he thinks, says, or does, must be certainly right; and nothing passes without the stamp of truth or falsehood from his assertion. This spirit of conceit, united with a love of liberty, has led men into great extravagancies of sentiment and conduct, which have disturbed the peace of society, and introduced turbulence and restlessness.

"These remarks apply with additional force to the youth of the present age. The principal object of instruction is to fit them for general conversation and amusement. No solid accomplishments are conceived essential for a young person to fill the station allotted him. He is not taught to reason, but to talk; not to think, but to act. He knows a little of every thing, and enough of nothing. He learns Latin by translations; he becomes acquainted with French, which requires no study; he reads abridgments in history, and hears the politics of the day. Thus armed at all points, the man of fourteen leaves school and enters life. He converses with people twice his age on subjects he does not understand. He is a freethinker on religion and politics, because it is fashionable to reject old opinions. He uses fine words which he has either heard used by others, or has collected in the course of his reading novels. He is very polite, as far as concerns the making a bow or picking up a lady's fan; but he possesses no one ingredient of politeness which flows from a good heart. And to make him a perfect man, he must ape sentiment without having its essence. Such is the spirit of the age, and education has caught the infection. No blame whatever can attach to the individuals engaged in the task of teaching. It is not the fault of men in general to turn reformers, even if they see reformation necessary. The risk is great, the success doubtful, and the advantage problematical. It is sufficient for them to deliver youth into the hands of their parents what they themselves are, and with their sons to be.

"We need not, however, wonder at all the rashness, excess, conceit, inconsistency, intemperance, and the long

catalogue of follies and vices which generally attend young people upon leaving school. We should rather wonder, if, ignorant of the depravity to which youth is prone, that such a crooked and narrow system did not offer incitements to the unruly passions, by increasing the means of gratification."

P. 1.

EXTRACT.

READING NOVELS.

"I AM sorry that I am obliged to rank novels in the class of fictitious writings; but, according to their general stamp, they cannot with propriety be placed any higher. They ought to be the most proper books to put into the hands of youth, but now they are among the most improper.

" Much has been said in praise and dispraise of these writings. By one class of persons they are read with avidity, and approved of with moderation; whilst, by others, they are never perused but to condemn them with harshness. The young will admire and the old censure, according to the state of the passions peculiar to each age. Indiscriminate judgments are always the result of passion or prejudice.

" The attachment of most people to the relation of adventures, and the progress of individuals through life, springs from the sympathy of our nature. In young people these feelings will, of course, be more acute than in those whom sad experience of life's calamities, and human vices, have rendered callous to the softer sentiments of pity and compassion. Hence may be traced the different feelings of the young and the old toward novels. But the cooler reasoner on men and things will feel it necessary to take a different view of this subject. Novels are extremely defective, but they are not so pernicious that a few alterations might not fit them for use.

" All novels give a false and delusive glare to the pictures that they draw of human life; which is a sort of fiction much more ensnaring than that of devises and fairies, as it approaches so near the reality, that readers in general are unable to detect the error. Human nature is painted in exaggerated colours. Every quality of body and mind is in extremes. Virtues and vices are always concentrated in individual objects, though in human life they are

always disseminated and blended. The heroine is all beauty, modesty, condescension, softness, and judgment. The hero has a fine form, a handsome face, a manly carriage, a noble mind, an exalted generosity, and extraordinary valour. In the inferior characters, excessive deformity of person is associated with excessive deformity of mind.

" The fallacy of this picture may be proved by observation. Beauty, if by that word we understand symmetry of feature, freshness of complexion, and elegance of form, is generally the most remote from virtue, for it is attended by the opposite extreme, which it engenders and cherishes. In beautiful women, vanity, caprice, petulance, and haughtiness, almost universally reside; and in handsome men, the most detestable tyranny, united to the vices of drinking, debauchery, and brutal severity.

" With the reverse of this beauty, you will perceive modesty, benevolence, prudence, and inward worth; which, to physiognomists, will be evidently pourtrayed in the countenance. The countenance is in a great measure the index of the mind. The looks, the walk, the every motion, will combine to mark the character. If beauty, therefore, were made to consist in animation of countenance and suavity of manners, it would be improper to separate the internal qualities from the external appearance. Not that I suppose the human mind can ever entirely divest itself of that predilection which the advantages of person produce; nor would it answer any moral purpose for it to arrive at this state of indifference; but the instant a beautiful form supplies the want of real excellence, or the reverse precludes intrinsic merit from the homage and respect due to it, the paffion becomes injurious.

" With this view I object to the representations in novels, which are calculated to fan the flame already too violent in the minds of youth toward personal attractions. The passion is always turbulent and capricious; it is an enemy to repose, and unhinges the mind for any solid reflection or useful exertions. This perturbation is not a little increased by the lively interest which young people take in the welfare of the two beings who are drawn thus perfect in mind and body. The object of the writer is, to direct your attention

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attention toward the two principal personages, whose first acquaintance, instantaneous attachment, consequent difficulties, vows of fidelity and unalterable affection, fears, doubts, hopes, ultimate union and certain bliss, are to excite the alternate feelings of love, admiration, fear, anxiety, hope, and joy, in your mind. Such pictures of the fancy require no masterly hand to rouse these feelings in young people, who are habituated to indulge such delusive dreams. Every paltry tale of a lover and his mistress will revive those sensations which afford them so much pleasure. We need not, therefore,

wonder to see the incalculable number of these productions which are perpetually making their appearance, and the uneasy hankering of youth to peruse them.

"As the use of the judgment must be entirely supplanted by the influence of the passions in these cases, they are thus far highly injurious, and should be kept out of the hands of youth as much as possible. It is evident, that in such a state of mind they can derive no moral improvement from them, if any were to be found; and they may find fuel for their own future misery."

P. 132.

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